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Wed.

Saskatchewan Rebellion

Sir John A. Macdonald.

" Charles Tupper

" Frontenac & La Salle

Tue. Small text book (B.K.

morning.

Page 24.

Henry VII reign

Lancastrian Period

(Note Book)

Find out who the members

of B.C. at Ottawa are.

Cambridge

KING GEORGE V.

ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF CANADA

BY

I. GAMMELL, B.A. (DAL.)

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, THE HIGH SCHOOL OF MONTREAL

WITH AN INTRODUCTION

BY

C. W. COLBY, M.A., PH.D. (HARVARD)

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WITH BRITISH COLUMBIA SUPPLEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

ANY one who wishes fully to realize the nature of human limitations, should write an elementary text-book. That gay and light-hearted person whom Stevenson calls "the critic on the hearth," rails against the school manual because it is dull. But if he tried to write one himself he would soon find out how difficult it is to be terse and picturesque at the same time. The general reader demands a narrative which abounds with personal details. He wants to know whether Cæsar was or was not in love with Cleopatra, and whether Napoleon's war-horse "Marengo" was black or white. But enlivening details consume the space which the writer of text-books must devote to Cæsar's relations with the Roman Senate and Napoleon's establishment of the Code. Even Macaulay, whose *History of England* was not designed as a text-book, suffered himself to be overcome by love of picturesque detail. Beginning with the later Stuarts, he devoted five octavo volumes to about a dozen years. Death cut him short at this point, but had he carried out his original plan on the same scale, he would hardly have covered the eighteenth century alone in fifty volumes.

But, above everything else, the writer of a school history is compelled to be terse. This means that he must confine himself almost wholly to politics, and also that he must exercise great self-denial in the choice of subjects. Art is selection, and the author of a text-book can best employ his artistic faculties in deciding what few things he will admit and what many things he will

154G12

exclude. Even after the preliminary choice has been made, there is still scope for great talent in distinguishing between what is more and what is less important.

I think it will be found that Mr. Gammell has prepared the present volume in full recognition of the difficulties which have just been mentioned, and with a resolve to make the best use of his limited space. For one, I know how seriously he has wrestled with the problem of perspective, and how anxious he has been to base his narrative upon sound material. The marked success which has attended his teaching of history in the Montreal High School attests the special qualification which he brings to the discharge of his difficult task. That this book may prove a boon to the teacher of history must be the wish of all of us who take a true interest in Canada. But a still better wish is that it may induce the beginner to study the annals of his country not from a sense of duty but with genuine delight.

C. W. Colby.

McGill University,
Montreal.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

ONE of the chief difficulties, perhaps, in the writing of a history for the use of school pupils is a judicious selection of historical facts. The author's long experience as a teacher of Canadian history leads him to the belief that it is a great mistake, and a very common one, to attempt to cover too much ground. In preparing this little work, therefore, he has omitted many details that frequently find a place in school histories. Believing that it is impossible to combine in an interesting and useful text-book the detailed records of the various provinces of British America previous to Confederation, he has dwelt most fully on the story of the central provinces upon the St. Lawrence, touching only upon those points in the history of the others that have a direct and important bearing upon the general current of our national life. And in the survey of the field, thus limited, the lesser features have been disregarded, and the greater treated with some detail. In the selection of such details prominence has been given to those that seem to stand in the relation of cause and effect.

Some effort has been made to bring clearly before the mind of the student the personality of the great men who have had a commanding influence upon our history. With one or two exceptions, the maps have been specially prepared for this book, and will, it is hoped, aid in making plain the close relation which exists between history and geography in Canada, as in every other country.

The list of general questions at the end of each chapter is by no means intended to be exhaustive. The purpose is rather to suggest a few points for thought on the part of the pupils.

The author desires to express his warmest thanks to Dr. C. W. Colby, professor of history in McGill University, to W. Dixon, B.A., rector of the Montreal High School, and to other friends for their kind assistance and helpful suggestions given to him in the preparation of this book. He is indebted to the courtesy of Messrs. Doughty and Parmelee for the reproduction of the portrait of Wolfe from their work on the Siege of Quebec. Many of the illustrations in parts V. and VI. were obtained through the kindness of the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal, from their Historical Collection in the Chateau de Ramezay. The portraits of parts VII. and VIII. are, for the most part, reproductions of photographs from the studio of Messrs. W. Notman and Sons, Montreal, whose kindness is gratefully acknowledged.

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DOMINION OF CANADA AND NEWFOUNDLAND

SCALE

0 50 100 200 300 400 500

440 Statute Miles to one inch

Capitals of Countries ✡

Capitals of Provinces ⊙ *Other Cities* •

Relative importance of places shown by size of type

Comparative Area

80,000
Square Miles

150° 140° 130° 120° 110° 100°

60° 50° 40°

Latitude North

120° *Longitude West from* 110° *Greenwich* 100°

650 ft. BEAUFORT SEA

ALASKA

PACIFIC OCEAN

6500 ft. 650 ft.

Mackenzie Bay

C. Bathurst

Banks Strait

Banks I.

Melville I.

Prince of Wales Strait

Melville Sound

McClintock Ch.

Victoria Str.

Grinnell Pen.

Bathurst I.

Barrow Str.

Prince of Wales I.

Somerset I.

Boothia Pen.

Magnetic Pole

King William I.

Victoria Island

Wollaston Pen.

Porcupine R.

Yukon R.

Circle

Tanana R.

Eagle

KLONDIKE Dawson REGION

Pelly R.

Lewes R.

L. Laberge

L. Teslin

YUKON

Mt. St. Elias

Malaspina Glacier

Mt. Logan

Mt. Fairweather

Fort Norman

Mackenzie R.

NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

Arctic Circle

Great Bear Lake

Great Slave L.

Ft. Hay

Backs R.

Chesterfield Inlet

Skagway

Juneau

Stikine R.

Sitka

Alexander Archipelago

Dixon Entrance

Prince Rupert

Skeena R.

Liard R.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Hecate Str.

Queen Charlotte Is.

Coast Range

Fraser R.

Kamloops

Vancouver I.

Strait of Juan de Fuca

Victoria

Vancouver

New Westminster

Puget Sound

Esquimalt

C. Flattery

Seattle

Tacoma

Portland

Columbia R.

Rossland Mts.

Nelson

Revelstoke

Vernon

Columbia Mts.

Peace R.

Slave R.

Athabaska R.

L. Athabaska

Fort Chipewyan

Fort McMurray

ALBERTA

Edmonton

Robson Peak

Wetaskiwin

Red Deer

Ft. Saskatchewan

Battleford

Columbia Mt.

Calgary

Prince Albert

Saskatchewan R.

Saskatoon

SASKATCHEWAN

Lake Winnipegosis

Yorkton

Dauphin

Regina

Moosejaw

Moosomin

Brandon

Medicine Hat

Weyburn

Lethbridge

Taber

Marleod

MANITOBA

The Pas

Lake Winnipeg

Lake Manitoba

Portage la Prairie

Selkirk

Winnipeg

Lake of the Woods

Kenora

English R.

Churchill R.

Nelson R.

Fort Churchill

Hudson Bay

Missouri R.

Red R.

Duluth

Minneapolis

St.

Mississippi R.

River

UNITED STATES

90° 80° 70° 60° 50° 40° 30°

ELLESMERE I.
Jones Sound
DEVON ISLAND
Lancaster Sound
C. YORK
BAFFIN BAY
Upernivik
GREENLAND
(TO DENMARK)
Disco
Godhavn
Davis Strait
Prince Regent Inlet
Gulf of Boothia
COCKBURN LAND
BAFFIN LAND
MELVILLE PENINSULA
FOX CHANNEL
C. WALSINGHAM
Godthaab
60°
C. MERCY
Cumberland Sound
FOX LAND
Julianehaab
C. FAREWELL
SOUTHAMPTON I.
Frobisher Bay
Hudson Strait
RESOLUTION I.
C. CHIDLEY
COATS I.
C. SOUTHAMPTON
MANSEL I.
Payne L.
Ungava Bay
650 ft.
6500 ft.
LABRADOR
Rama (Mission)
Nain
Hopedale (Mission)
Hamilton Inlet
C. BAULD
HUDSON BAY
Nelson
York Factory
C. HENRIETTA MARIA
Hamilton R.
50°
Strait of Belle Isle
NEWFOUNDLAND
St. Johns
C. RACE
HEIGHT OF LAND
James Bay
Eastmain R.
QUEBEC
Albany R.
Rupert R.
Lake Mistassini
ANTICOSTI I.
Gulf of St. Lawrence
MIQUELON I. (To France)
ST. PIERRE I. (Fr.)
Moose R.
Lake St. John
Saguenay R.
Matapedia R.
Dalhousie
Seul L.
Cochrane
Arthur William
Chatham
NEW BRUNSWICK
PRINCE EDWARD I.
Charlottetown
Sydney
Glace Bay
CAPE BRETON I.
Strait of Canso
Cobalt
Gatineau R.
Three Rivers
Quebec
Moncton
Truro
Woodstock
Fredericton
St. John
Halifax
SABLE I.
Sault Ste. Marie
Sudbury
Montreal
St. Lawrence R.
Sherbrooke
NOVA SCOTIA
Bay of Fundy
Yarmouth
C. SABLE
LAKE SUPERIOR
SOO CANALS
North Bay
Ottawa R.
Ottawa
Portland
Milwaukee
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
Toronto
L. ONTARIO
Hamilton
Buffalo
Boston
C. COD
Detroit
London
ST. LAWRENCE-WELLAND CANAL
Windsor
L. ERIE
Erie
New York
Chicago
650 ft.
6500 ft.
ATLANTIC
STATES
90° 80° 70°

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NORTHWEST TERRITORIES
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SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
LABRADOR
NEWFOUNDLAND
NEW BRUNSWICK
NOVA SCOTIA
PRINCE EDWARD I.
UNITED STATES
Mackenzie Bay
Banks I.
Melville I.
Ellesmere I.
Devon Island
Jones Sound
Lancaster Sound
Baffin I.
Cockburn Land
Melville Peninsula
Boothia
Wollaston Pen.
Victoria Island
Prince of Wales I.
Somerset I.
Magnetic Pole
King William I.
Great Bear Lake
Great Slave L.
Fort Norman
Fort Simpson
Fort Wrangell
Juneau
Skagway
Dawson
Mt. St. Elias
Mt. Fairweather
Mt. Logan
Lake Athabaska
Fort Chipewyan
Fort McMurray
Edmonton
Calgary
Prince Albert
Saskatoon
Battleford
Regina
Moosejaw
Medicine Hat
Winnipeg
Lake Winnipegosis
Lake Manitoba
Portage la Prairie
Brandon
Yorkton
Fort Churchill
Port Nelson
York Factory
Cape Henrietta Maria
James Bay
Fort Arthur
Port William
Kenora
Nipigon
Cochrane
Albany R.
Moose R.
Lake St. John
Lake Mistassini
Eastmain
Rupert R.
Hamilton R.
Ungava Bay
Payne L.
Resolution I.
Cape Chidley
Frobisher Bay
Cumberland Sound
Cape Walsingham
Cape Mercy
Cape Farewell
Godthaab
Julianehaab
Disco
Godhavn
Upernivik
Cape York
Coats I.
Cape Southampton
Mansel I.
Southampton I.
Fox Land
Chesterfield Inlet
Baker Lake
Backs R.
Great Fish R.
Mackenzie R.
Peace R.
Athabaska R.
Churchill R.
Nelson R.
Red R.
Missouri
Mississippi River
Duluth
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Milwaukee
Chicago
Detroit
Windsor
Toronto
Hamilton
Buffalo
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Welland Canal
Sault Ste. Marie
Sudbury
North Bay
Ottawa
Montreal
Quebec
Three Rivers
Cobalt
Timiskaming
Height of Land
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Strait of Belle Isle
Strait of Canso
Cape Bauld
Cape Race
St. Johns
Miquelon I. (To France)
St. Pierre I. (Fr.)
Sydney
Glace Bay
Cape Breton I.
Sable I.
Charlottetown
Fredericton
St. John
Moncton
Halifax
Cape Sable
Bay of Fundy
Portland
Boston
New York
Nain (Mission)
Hopedale (Mission)
Rama (Mission)
650 ft.
6500 ft.

GENERAL SUMMARY

SECTION 1

THE PERIOD OF FRENCH RULE

Discovery and Exploration. — The story of Canada covers a period of four centuries. Its beginning takes us back to a time when our country was a forest wilderness inhabited only by a few wandering tribes of red men, when our forefathers lived in Europe and knew nothing of a continent beyond the Western Ocean. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries various peoples of Europe living beside that ocean made their way across it, discovered and occupied the "New World" of America. The story of Canada is concerned with two of these, first with the French and then with the English. Sailing under the French flag, Verrazano and Cartier explored the North Atlantic coast and the shores of the Gulf and the River St. Lawrence. In consequence of these voyages the French took possession of the surrounding regions of Acadia and Canada, which thus came to be called New France.

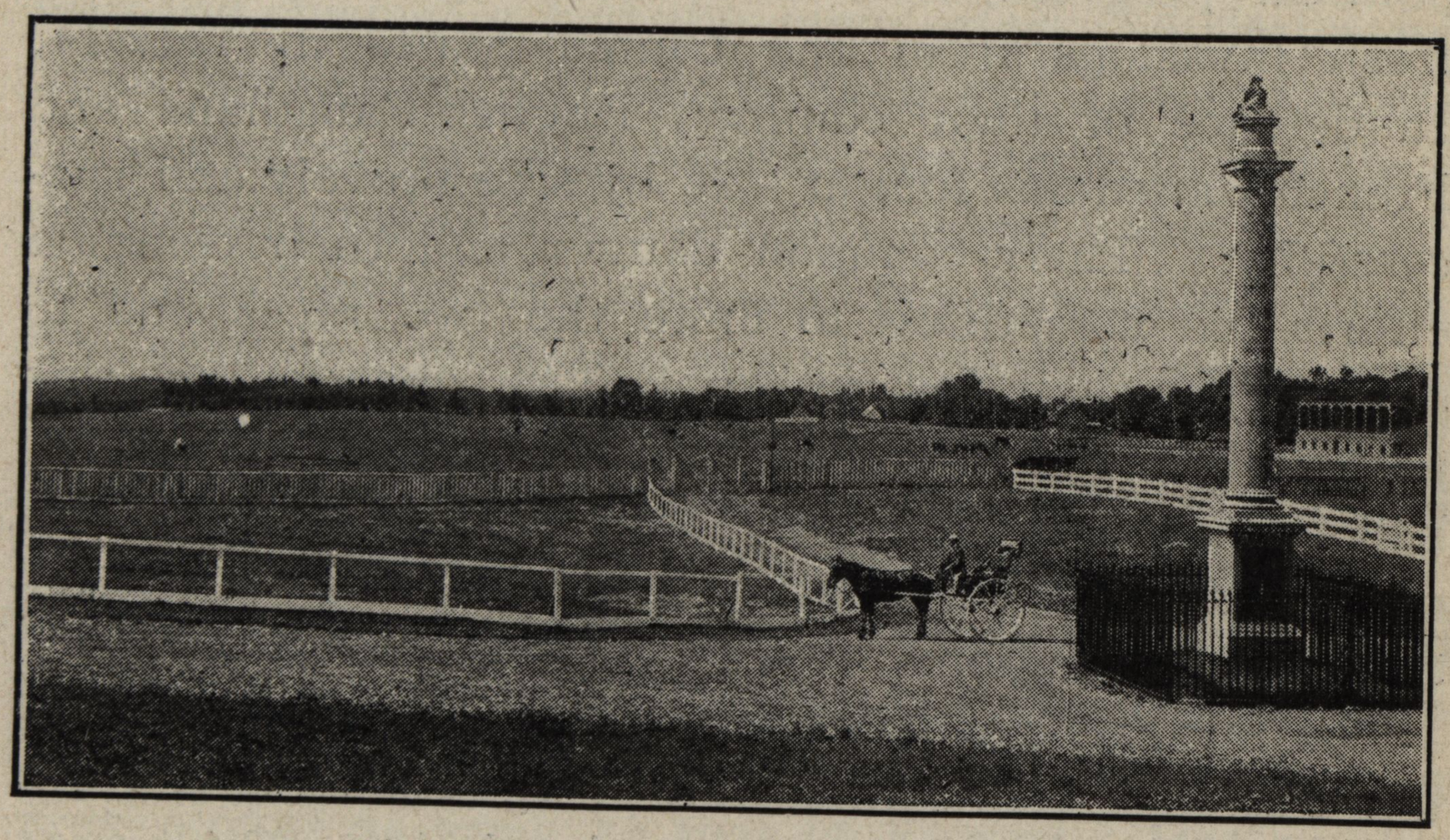
The Rule of the Fur Companies.—At first this vast territory was placed under the control of companies which were under obligation to establish colonies, and were granted the sole right to trade in furs. In 1605, De Monts, the head of the first company, founded Port Royal in Acadia, and Champlain, his representative, founded Quebec in Canada three years later. In spite of the noble efforts of Champlain, for many years governor of Canada, the French colonies did not prosper

under the rule of the fur traders. Missionaries were very active in their efforts to christianize the natives, but the merchants would not spend the money necessary for the settlement of the country and for its protection from the attacks of its cruel enemies, the Iroquois Indians. The king of France, therefore, cancelled the charter of the Hundred Associates, as the last fur company was called, and established royal government in 1663.

Growth under Royal Government.—Under the energetic rule of the king and his officials, thousands of colonists were settled in Canada. The fierce Iroquois were compelled to sue for peace. French missionaries in larger numbers visited the Indian tribes of the interior, teaching them Christianity, gaining their confidence and friendship. French traders travelled far and wide exchanging trinkets, knives, hatchets and guns for the rich furs of the natives. In this way French mission stations and trading posts gradually extended over the region of the Great Lakes and along the Mississippi River. French settlers, however, were hardly to be found west of Montreal.

The Struggle of French and English for Supremacy.—Meanwhile the English had settled along the coast region of what is now the United States. They spread westward to the Appalachian mountains and northward towards Canada and Acadia. Thus they came into conflict with the French and their allies, the Indians. They were much alarmed at the advance of the former into the valleys of the Mississippi and the Ohio, since it would shut themselves out from the rich lands of the West which they claimed as their own. France and Britain were at this time keen rivals in the race for colonial supremacy. Each supported the claim of her colonists, for the possession of half of North America

was at stake. Nothing but war could settle the dispute. In the great struggle, beginning in 1756 and known as the Seven Years' War, Britain was victorious. The valley of the St. Lawrence and the eastern part of the Mississippi Valley fell into her hands. Thus Canada, after a century and a half of French occupation, became a British possession in 1760.



THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM.

SECTION 2

THE PERIOD OF BRITISH RULE

The Laying of New Foundations. — This change of ownership brought with it change of laws and methods of government. Some confusion followed, and for a time discontent existed among the French inhabitants. Then came the rebellion of the older British colonies and the unsuccessful invasion of Canada by their forces in 1775. They were, however, able to win their independence, becoming the United States. Numbers

of the people who had remained loyal to Britain sought new homes in Canada, where they formed a valuable addition to the population. These new settlers—the United Empire Loyalists—soon demanded and obtained for the people of Canada a larger share in the government of the country than they had hitherto enjoyed, either before or since the British conquest. Peace and political progress were soon interrupted by war and fresh invasions from the United States in 1812-14. In defence of their country, English-Canadians and French-Canadians fought side by side bravely and successfully. Their common danger and their common efforts did something to unite the two races and to strengthen their patriotism. The changes of this period since the conquest, with its dangers and trials, had an immense influence on Canadian history, and may be described as the laying of new foundations for the Canadian nation.

The Struggle for Self-Government.—After the close of the war with the United States agitation for a freer form of government was revived. Public affairs were still largely in the hands of officials appointed by the British government and responsible to it alone. Public business was not managed as the people wished. The population was rapidly increasing in numbers, wealth and intelligence, and a large party now demanded that the Canadian people themselves should control such local affairs as concerned themselves alone. The official party long resisted this demand, and were for a time supported by the British government. Discontent grew. The more reckless of the Reform leaders stirred up a rebellion in 1837. It was easily crushed. When the British government saw how determined the Canadian people were to secure local self-government, it

wisely granted their demands. The two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, separated fifty years before, were re-united at the same time (1841).

Steps towards Confederation.—This struggle for self-government was common to all the provinces of British America and brought their people more in touch with one another. Improved communication by post, railway and steamship had the same effect. A desire for union sprang up. Upper Canada and Lower Canada did not agree very well together and thought that their difficulties might be removed by a larger union in which each province might have a local government of its own. The need of combination against a possible attack from the United States hastened the movement, and in 1867 Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia united to form the Dominion of Canada.

National Development.—The progress of Canada since Confederation has been remarkable. Her bounds have been extended from ocean to ocean until they include an area almost as great as that of Europe. Her wealth and commerce have increased by leaps and bounds. Great railways have been built which have welded her scattered provinces more closely together. The people of these provinces have learned to work together for the welfare of their common country. Some have thought that this vigorous growth of a united and self-governing Dominion might lead to the further step of complete separation from the motherland. But of this change there is yet no sign. She is still content to say in the words of the poet, "Daughter am I in my mother's house, but mistress in my own."

THE PERIOD OF FRENCH RULE

PART I. DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

CHAPTER I

AMERICA DISCOVERED

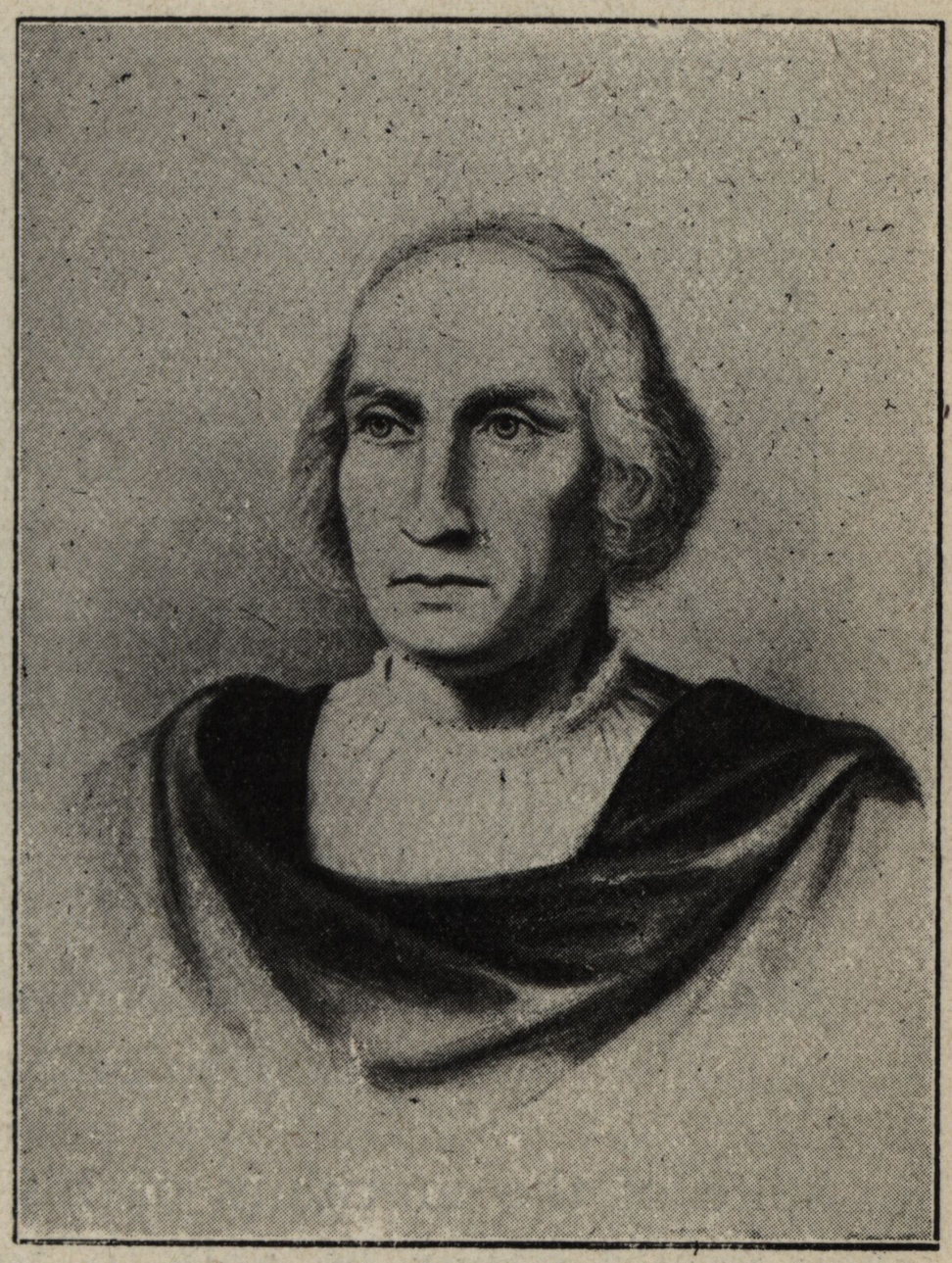
America Unknown to Europeans.—Canadian history begins with the discovery of America by Europeans at the end of the fifteenth century. It is true that sea-rovers from Norway visited the north-eastern shores of this continent much earlier than this (A.D. 1000), but they made no permanent settlements, and their voyages soon ceased.

No knowledge of these discoveries spread to the other countries of Europe; for there were few books and no newspapers in those days, and people seldom travelled, even into lands near by. The world known to the civilized people of the Middle Ages, as these times are called, consisted of Europe, Northern Africa, and the south-western parts of Asia.

Learning and Commerce.—In the fifteenth century wonderful changes began to take place in Europe. The invention of printing had greatly reduced the cost of books and had multiplied the number of those who bought and studied them. Men were eager to learn of the wonderful doings and the wise sayings of the Greeks and Romans of old. Not less eagerly did they turn to the world around them. They were eager to travel and to see it for themselves. Commerce steadily grew as men began to appreciate the products of other lands.

The first country to feel the new spirit had been Italy. Her scholars and artists were the greatest of the time. No merchants were so rich as those of Genoa and Venice. Fleets from these ports had long sailed to Syria to obtain the gold, the ivory, the spices and the rich cloths brought by caravan from India. But this route over the deserts of Persia and Arabia, always expensive and dangerous, was now almost closed by the fierce and barbarous Turks, who had lately conquered the countries bordering the eastern Mediterranean.

The Sea Route to India.—The desire to resume this trade prompted men to seek a new way to India. The common belief of the time was that the earth was a flat plain surrounded by the ocean. The mariner's compass, recently invented, now enabled the sailor to make his way more surely across the sea, and the PORTUGUESE began to send out explorers in the hope of finding a sea passage to India around the south of Africa.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

Some geographers, however, thought that the world was not a flat plain, but a round ball. India might, therefore, lie just beyond the Western Ocean. The first man to test this theory was CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

Columbus.—This famous man was an Italian, a native of Genoa. Having studied much and travelled far, he had become convinced that the eastern parts of Asia could be reached by sailing westward across the Atlantic. It proved a difficult matter to convince others of this. At last, however, after years of patient effort and many disappointments, he managed to persuade the king of Spain to equip three small vessels with which to make the attempt.

The Discovery of America.—With these vessels Columbus started out in the summer of 1492 on his famous voyage. For two months he kept on his way to the west

THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

in spite of the murmurs of his men, who feared that they would never be able to return. At last, on the 12th of October, land was discovered to the great joy of all. As soon as they touched the shore, Columbus and his men fell on their knees, and thanked God for the success of their venture. The island was one of the

group now called BAHAMAS. Continuing on his way Columbus discovered the islands of Cuba and Hayti, and took possession of them for Spain. Thinking that he had indeed reached India, he called these islands the INDIES and the natives INDIANS. When the mistake was discovered, the name was not changed, but the islands were called WEST INDIES to distinguish them from the true Indies of the East. The honours showered upon Columbus on his triumphant return were in striking contrast with the neglect and opposition he had formerly suffered.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 1

1. **Changes in the spirit of Europe at close of 15th century.**
   - *a.* Growing interest in ancient learning and in foreign countries.
   - *b.* Growing spirit of adventure.
   - *c.* Growing desire for commerce, especially with the East.
2. **Search for a sea route to India.**
   - *a.* Portuguese navigators sail southward and eastward around Africa to India.
   - *b.* Spaniards under Columbus sail westward and discover America, 1492.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Why were the earlier discoveries of the Northmen almost unknown to Europeans of the fifteenth century?
2. Why were Europeans eager to find a sea route to India?
3. Why were so many of the early navigators Italians?
4. What were the important effects of the voyages of Columbus?

CHAPTER II

AMERICA EXPLORED

Spanish Exploration.—The discoveries of Columbus created great interest, and many Spaniards were eager to search in the "New World" for the precious metals

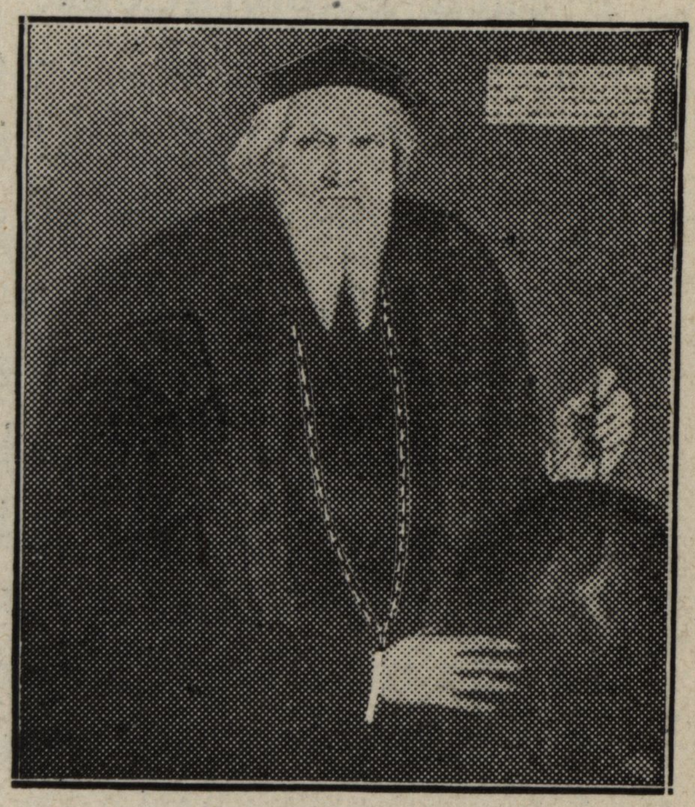
GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS OF THE FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH CENTURIES.

which the natives had reported to be abundant. Columbus himself made three more voyages, and explored the shores of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico. CORTEZ explored Mexico and easily conquered its partially civilized inhabitants. PIZARRO carried the Spanish

flag into South America, and in time Spain occupied all the western mountain region of that continent. In 1519-22 MAGELLAN'S expedition sailed south of South America, across the Pacific Ocean to the East Indies, thence around Africa to Spain. This proved that Columbus was right as to the shape of the earth, but wrong as to the superiority of the western route to Asia. But the new lands proved marvellously rich in gold and silver, and Spain became for a time the wealthiest country in the world.

Portuguese Exploration.—In the meantime the Portuguese had traced the coasts of Africa. One of their commanders, VASCO DA GAMA, made his way round the Cape of Good Hope to India in 1498. They explored also the eastern shores of South America.

Disputes arose between the Portuguese and the Spaniards as to the limits of their new possessions. The Pope settled it by drawing a line through the Atlantic several hundred miles west of the Azores. Africa, the Indies, and Brazil, which were east of the line, were to belong to the Portuguese; the rest of America was to be Spanish. In much of this region the Spanish race and the Spanish language are still to be found.



SEBASTIAN CABOT.

English Exploration.—Other powers of Western Europe had no intention of allowing the Pope's decree to exclude them from the New World. Already Henry VII. of England had sent out JOHN CABOT, a Venetian mariner who had settled in Bristol, to find a

route to China and India, and to take possession of lands discovered for England. Accompanied by his son Sebastian, he sailed from Bristol in May, 1497, with one small vessel and thirty men, and first sighted the "new lands" at some point on the shores of Newfoundland or Cape Breton. Thence he followed the coast of the continent southward to Florida. Another expedition appears to have been sent out the following year. There is much uncertainty as to the details of both voyages, no record having been published at the time. There is, however, to be found in Henry's cash accounts the following entry: —"To him who found the new lands, £10."

The importance of these voyages lies in the fact that the Cabots were the first to reach the mainland of America, and that their discoveries were afterwards made the basis of England's claim to the eastern coast of North America. In the meantime, however, she neglected the New World.

French Explorations.—France at first took no part in the new enterprises, but she was now eager to grasp a share of the wealth which she saw enriching her rival, Spain. The search was entrusted by King Francis to VERRAZANO, an Italian navigator living in France. In 1524 he sailed along the coast of the United States and Nova Scotia, and called the whole region NEW FRANCE. But like the Cabots, who had preceded him there, he found neither precious metals nor passage to Asia.

In the meantime the marvellous abundance of codfish in the waters of Newfoundland, as reported by Cabot, had been attracting the fishermen of Europe. Every year hundreds of vessels from France and other countries resorted thither to gather the riches of the sea. Through these voyages more definite knowledge of the neighbouring shores was gained, and it was now known

that a great arm of the sea (the Gulf of St. Lawrence) stretched far to the west. Here might be the wished-for passage to Asia, and to explore it the French king prepared another expedition. The command was given to a well-known captain of St. Malo, named JACQUES CARTIER. To his discovery and exploration of Canada a new chapter must be devoted.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER II

1. **Spanish Exploration.**
   - *a.* Columbus explores shores of Caribbean Sea and of the Gulf of Mexico.
   - *b.* Cortez occupies Mexico.
   - *c.* Pizarro occupies Peru.
   - *d.* Magellan sails around the world.
2. **Spanish Colonies.**
3. **Portuguese occupy Brazil and the coasts of Africa.**
4. **English Exploration.**

   Cabot explores the eastern coast of North America from Labrador to Florida.
5. **French Exploration.**
   - *a.* Verrazano explores the coast of North America from Virginia to Nova Scotia.
   - *b.* European fishermen penetrate the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

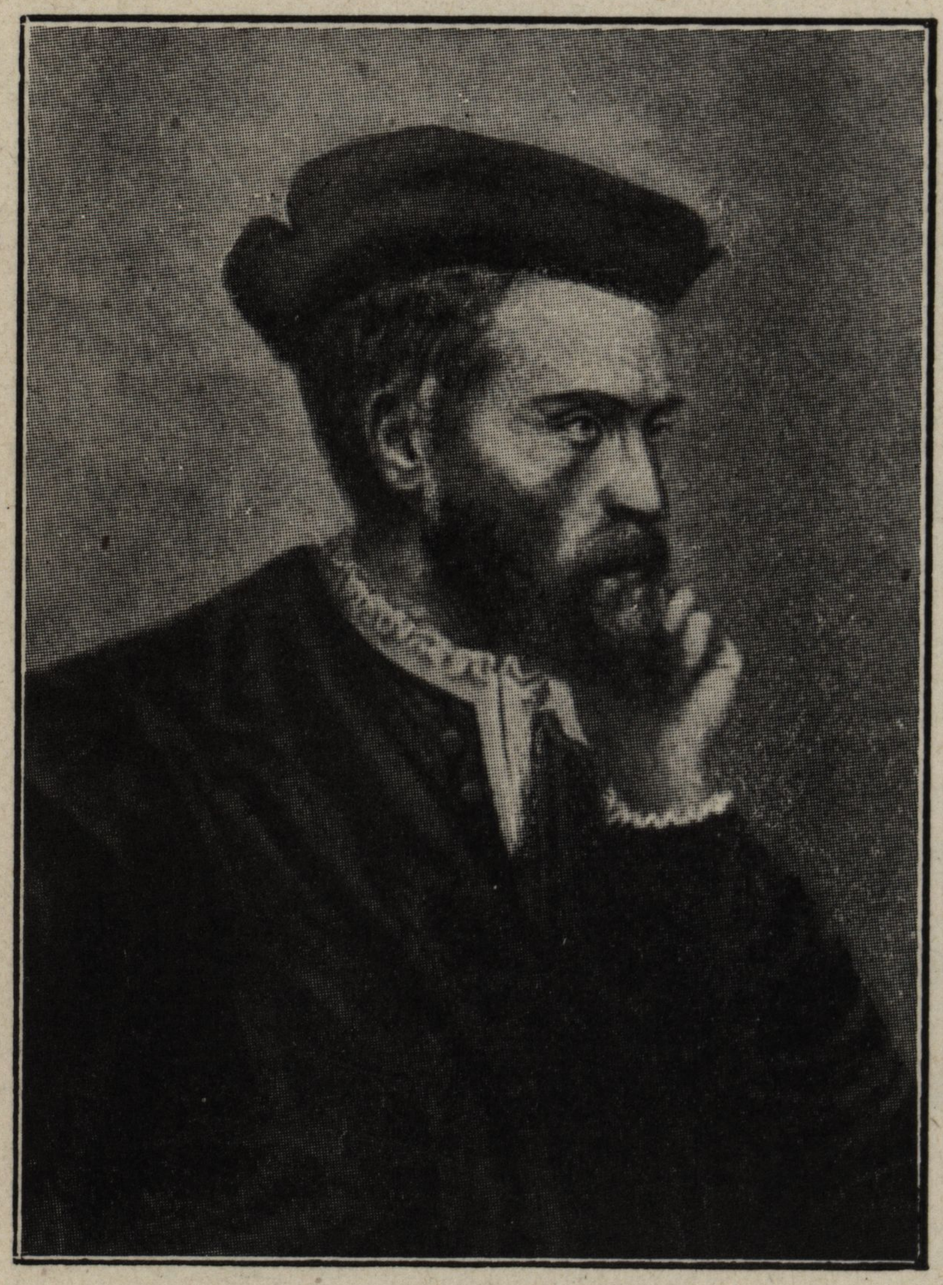
GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What motive induced many Spaniards to come to America?
2. In what American countries is the Spanish language generally spoken?
3. What is the importance of Cabot's voyage?

CHAPTER III

CANADA EXPLORED BY CARTIER

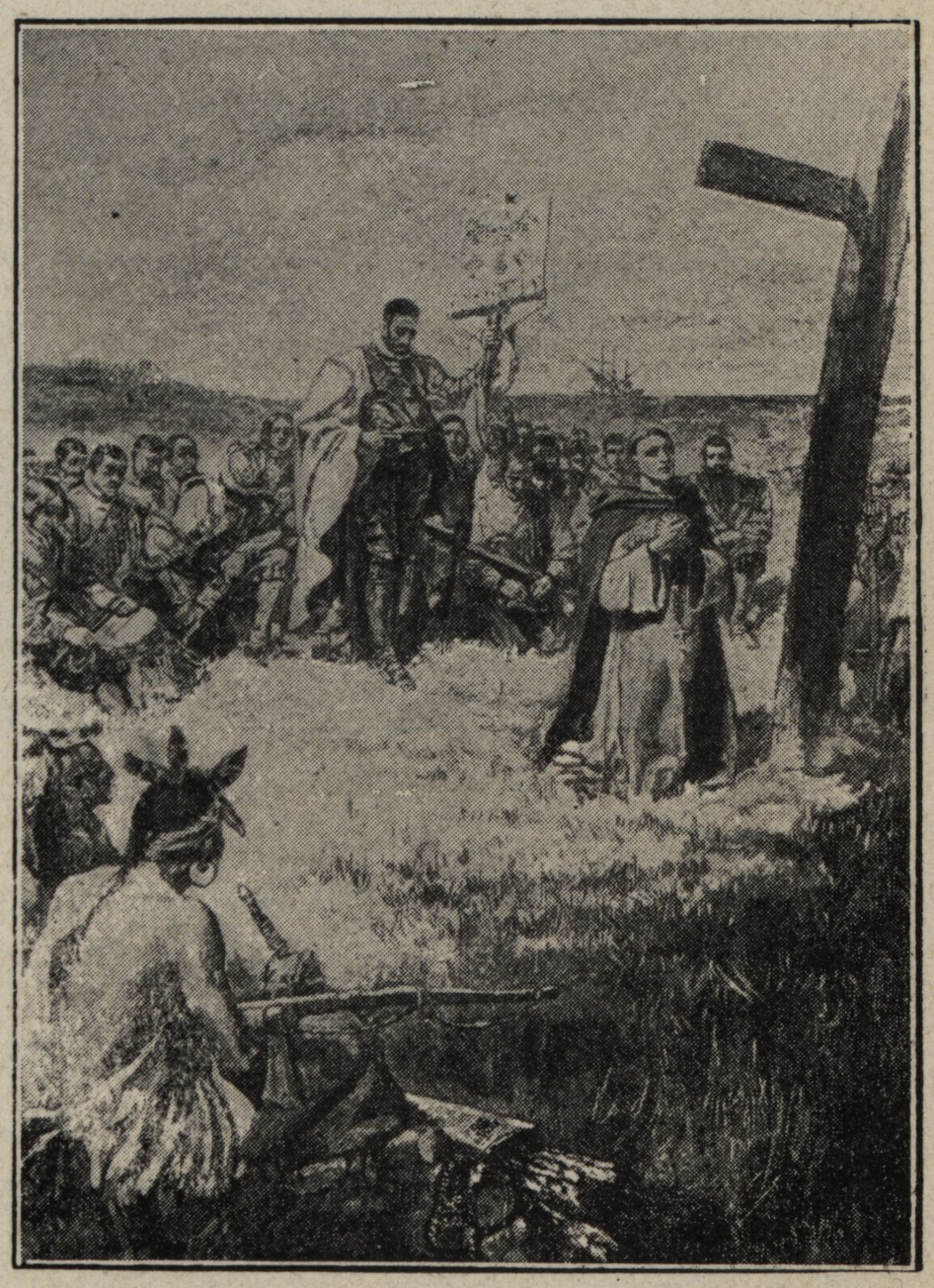
Cartier's First Voyage.—Cartier sailed from St. Malo in April, 1534. Entering the gulf, afterwards named St. Lawrence, he sailed south and west until he reached its western shore. He then turned northward, searching everywhere for an opening. In one large bay penetrating far inland, he found the July heat so intense that he named it BAY CHALEUR. A little further on, he landed at GASPÉ. Here he set up a cross, with the arms of France affixed, to show that the country henceforth belonged to King Francis and to the Christian Church. This was the first formal occupation of any part of the New World by the French.



JACQUES CARTIER.

Proceeding on his way, Cartier entered the broad mouth of the St. Lawrence. Fearing the approach of autumn storms, however, he left its exploration for another year, and turned his course homeward.

Second Voyage, 1535.—In May of the next year Cartier again set forth. Passing the Straits of Belle Isle, he sailed westward along the Labrador coast. On the 10th of August he entered a small inlet north of Anticosti which, in honour of the day, was called St. Lawrence, a name afterwards extended to the River and Gulf. The gradual narrowing of the channel and the growing freshness of the water convinced Cartier that he was entering no passage to Asia, but the mouth of a mighty river. He had with him as guides two young Indians whom he had seized the previous year at Gaspé, but whose home lay farther up the river. When questioned about the names of places passed, they frequently used in reply the word, CANADA, the term in their language for village. Cartier thought the country itself was so named, and used the word with that meaning in his account of his discoveries. Thus originated the name of our broad Dominion.



CARTIER TAKES POSSESSION OF NEW FRANCE.

Cartier at Stadacona.—Soon the voyagers sailed into a beautiful basin, now the harbour of Quebec. Facing them, was a towering rock which here narrows the river

to half its usual breadth, and at its foot lay the Indian village of STADACONA. Its chief, Donnacona, and his dusky followers welcomed the French with joyous

CARTIER'S ARRIVAL AT STADACONA.

clamour. They swarmed around the vessels in their canoes, bringing offerings of fish and maize, and were charmed with the beads and trinkets given in return.

They told Cartier that the principal town of the country was HOCHELAGA, a long distance up the river. When he expressed a wish to visit it, they tried to prevent him by enlarging on the difficulties and dangers of the journey. Perhaps they thought that fewer of the wonderful gifts of the visitors would come to themselves, if the supply were shared with their countrymen above. Cartier, however, was not to be dissuaded. With his smallest vessel and fifty men he soon set out, and reached his destination in a fortnight.

Hochelaga.—The Indian town was at a little distance from the river, and hither the French were escorted by

a great throng of leaping and shouting natives. It lay in the midst of fields of maize, now yellowed by autumn frosts. Cartier counted more than fifty houses, each sheltering many families. It was surrounded by a wooden wall made of triple rows of stakes driven into the ground and bound together at the top. Cartier and his men were received as gods from heaven by the townsmen, who brought forth their sick to receive the healing touch of the visitors. For two hours Cartier read to them the story of our Saviour, to which they listened with respectful attention, although they understood not a word.

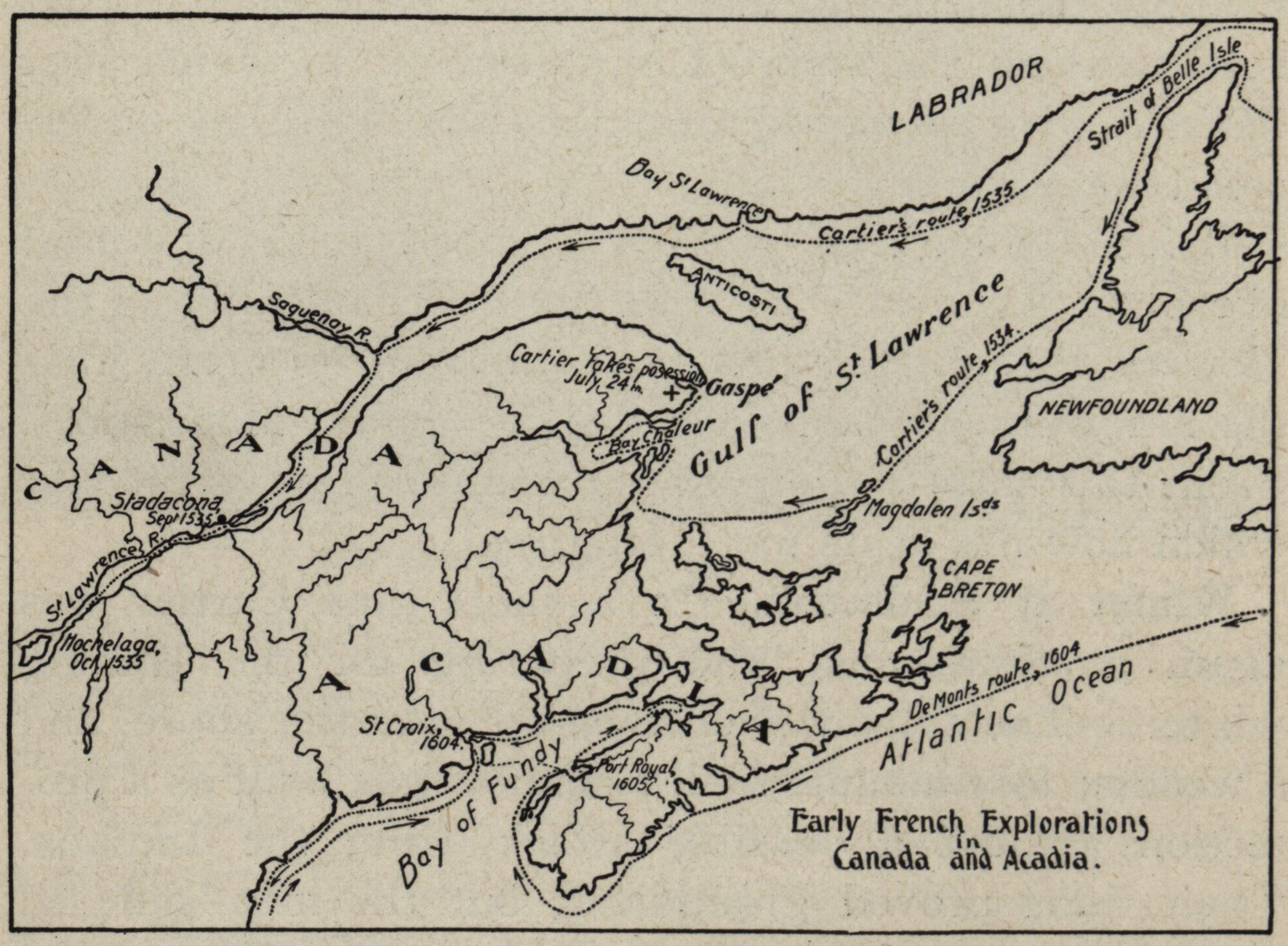
Before embarking, Cartier climbed the ridge that overhung the town. So wide and so beautiful was the view of the surrounding country from its crest, that the admiring Frenchman called it "Royal Mountain." From this term is derived the name of the great city which now lies at its foot—Montreal.

Winter at Stadacona.—In a short time Cartier was again at Stadacona, and preparing for the coming winter. The ships were drawn up near the shore, and a wooden fort mounted with cannon was built as a protection against a possible attack from the Indians. Their fears proved groundless, but the men suffered severely from the unaccustomed cold. They were attacked by the dreadful disease of scurvy, which carried off many of their number until a cure was found in a decoction made from the leaves and twigs of the spruce tree.

As soon as the river was clear of ice, Cartier prepared for his return. The expedition had not been successful in discovering the expected mines of gold and silver, but Donnacona insisted that these precious metals were to be found in abundance in the land of

Saguenay. His assertion cost him dear; for Cartier, when departing, seized him and carried him off that he might repeat his wonderful tales in the French Court.

The First Colony.—By right of the discoveries of Verrazano and of Cartier, France now claimed the northern half of North America. In 1541 the king sent a colony to occupy his realm of NEW FRANCE. ROBERVAL, a French nobleman, was named viceroy,



Early French Explorations in Canada and Acadia.

and Cartier was made "captain-general" of the expedition. With five ships the latter sailed in advance of the main party, and made a settlement at Cap Rouge, a few miles above Stadacona. So terrible were the sufferings of the colonists during the winter from cold, hunger and disease that they sailed for France in the spring without waiting for Roberval. They met him at Newfoundland; but Cartier refused to return to Canada, and continued on his way.

Roberval re-occupied Cartier's settlement. Faring no better than his predecessor, he, too, abandoned so inhospitable a land. Thus closed in disappointment and disaster the first effort of French colonization in America. No other attempt was made for many years. French fishermen, however, still thronged the coast, and traders reaped rich profits by bartering knives, hatchets and trinkets for the valuable furs of the Indians.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER III

1. **Cartier's First Voyage.**
   - *a.* Exploration of shores of Gulf of St. Lawrence.
   - *b.* Formal occupation of country proclaimed at Gaspé.
2. **Cartier's Second Voyage.**
   - *a.* The St. Lawrence named and explored.
   - *b.* Stadacona visited.
   - *c.* Hochelaga visited.
   - *d.* Winter at Stadacona.
3. **The First French Colony.**
   - *a.* Cartier sent in advance to Stadacona.
   - *b.* Roberval's failure.
   - *c.* Decline of French interest in the New World.

General Questions

1. What was the immediate purpose of Cartier's expeditions?
2. Name the various places visited by him.
3. What qualities of Cartier are shown by the story of his voyages?
4. Why was the first settlement of the French a failure?

CHAPTER IV

THE INDIANS

Appearance. — The Indians are supposed to be of Asiatic origin. They were a tall, spare race of men, with sharp features and copper-coloured skin. Their hair was coarse, straight and black. In warm weather they went almost naked, but in winter they clad themselves in fur from the animals of the forest.

Tribes.—Although a general resemblance could be traced throughout the race, they were divided into several great families which had well-marked peculiarities of their own. Of these, Canadian history is concerned with two, the ALGONQUINS and the HURON-IROQUOIS.

The Algonquin family extended from the Atlantic to Lake Superior and the upper Mississippi. They lived mainly by hunting and fishing, and roamed in small bands from place to place in search of game. Their cone-shaped houses, called wigwams, were easily and speedily made by driving slight poles into the ground in a circle, and binding them together at the top. This framework was then covered by skins or sheets of bark. These scattered bands were loosely joined together into tribes. Those living in Nova Scotia were called MICMACS ; those in Maine and south-eastern Quebec, ABENAKIS. Along the Saguenay were to be found the MONTAGNAIS (mountaineers), and on the northern shores of Lakes Superior and Huron, the OTTAWAS and OJIBWAYS.

The Huron-Iroquois family is named from two of its most important tribes. The Hurons lived south of

Georgian Bay, and the Iroquois, south of Lake Ontario. These Indians tilled the soil in a rude fashion, and raised crops of maize, pumpkins, beans and tobacco. They had permanent homes, living in large villages like the Hochelaga visited by Cartier.

Of all these various tribes, the Iroquois were by far the most powerful and successful in war. They owed their superiority not only to their greater resolution, fierceness and daring, but also to their better organization. They were in fact a confederation of five tribes, and were often called "The Five Nations." These alone among Indians had learned how much stronger they could become by uniting their forces for a common purpose, than by wasting their efforts in petty quarrels among themselves.

AN INDIAN WARRIOR.

Character and Customs.—Living in the open, the Indian was a keen observer of things around him. He knew the habits of beast and bird. He could unerringly make his way through the forest by signs which the white man would never notice. A hunter, he became cunning, swift of foot, patient to endure hunger and fatigue. In war he was cruel and revengeful; and the greatest pleasure of women and children, as well as of warriors, was to inflict the most dreadful tortures on prisoners brought back for that purpose by the war parties. At home the men passed much of their time in gambling, smoking and feasting. They thought all labour beneath them, and fit only for squaws, as the women were called. Before the coming of Europeans,

the Indians were ignorant of the use of iron. Their weapons and tools were made of stone.

Religion. — The Indians had no idea of a Supreme God who created and loved mankind. They believed, however, in spirits, or Manitous, as they called them, who haunted the mountains, streams and lakes, and who were powerful to hurt or to help. Sorcerers, or "medicine-men," who pretended to win the favour of these spirits by their magic, had great authority among all the tribes. Perhaps the greatest influence on the life of the red man was that of the Dream; its supposed teachings he never failed to obey. The religion of the Indian moved him only through fear or selfishness, and had no power to make him lead a purer and a nobler life.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV

1. **Appearance of Indians.**
   Tall, thin, copper-coloured, black-haired.
2. **Divisions.**
   a. Algonquins.
   Extending from Atlantic to Lake Superior and Mississippi;
   consisting of wandering bands living in wigwams;
   supported by hunting and fishing.
   b. Huron-Iroquois.
   Settled around the lower Great Lakes;
   living in large stationary villages;
   tilling the soil in rude fashion.
3. **Character and Customs.**
   Skilled in woodcraft; warlike, cruel and revengeful; lazy and improvident; superstitious.

General Questions

1. What is supposed to be the origin of the Indians?
2. In what respects were the Huron-Iroquois in advance of the Algonquins?
3. Describe an Iroquois village (see page 38).
4. How were the Indians affected by the coming of the white men?

PART II. CANADA UNDER THE FUR-COMPANIES

CHAPTER V

ACADIA SETTLED BY DE MONTS

Renewed Interest in New France.—For many years the French had been occupied with religious disputes and civil wars, and their rulers paid little attention to the New World. When peace was finally restored, trade revived, and men of adventurous mind turned their thoughts to the New France of the West. If these regions presented no rich stores of precious metals, they offered the wealth of their fur-trade. King Henry IV. wished to establish his control over them by the settlement of colonies. What was more natural than to combine the two aims, and make the profits of the fur-trade pay the cost of the colonies? For more than half a century the colonization and government of Canada were in the hands of Companies, who were given by the king the sole right to trade in furs.

DE MONTS.

De Monts founds Port Royal, 1605.—In 1604 a nobleman named De Monts was given a charter to colonize ACADIA, a region described as extending along the Atlantic from the Delaware river to the St. Lawrence. With him were Baron de Poutrincourt, Pontgravé, a

merchant already engaged in the fur-trade, and Champlain, of whom we shall hear more.

Well supplied with all things needful by the generous De Monts, the party sailed for Acadia in the spring of 1604. Entering the Bay of Fundy they discovered on its southern shore a land-locked basin which so charmed them with its beauty that they called it PORT ROYAL. They spent their first winter, however, on the island of St. Croix in Passamaquoddy Bay. Only half of the company survived the hardships of the winter; and in the spring the rest, joined by recruits from France, gladly returned to Port Royal. Comfortable buildings were erected, and the second winter was passed much more pleasantly than the first. The Indians proved friendly; and the colony was beginning to prosper, when French merchants, jealous of De Monts' monopoly of the fur-trade, persuaded the king to recall his charter. The colony was, therefore, abandoned in 1607.

Poutrincourt Returns.—But nothing could discourage Poutrincourt, who had learned to love his forest home in Acadia. In 1610 he returned, with the king's permission, to the deserted buildings of Port Royal. The Indians gladly welcomed the kindly Frenchmen. Many of them accepted the teachings of the Jesuit missionaries who had accompanied Poutrincourt, and were baptized into the Roman Catholic Church.

Port Royal Captured by the English, 1613.—In the meantime the English, who claimed the Atlantic coast region by right of the discoveries of the Cabots, had founded a colony at Jamestown in Virginia. When they heard that the French had occupied Acadia, they sent a small force under ARGALL to drive them out. This officer, arriving at Port Royal when most of the French were absent, plundered and burnt the little settlement without

resistance. Thus began the great dispute between France and England in North America, which in time was to involve the possession of half the continent.

For a time Port Royal was neglected by both English and French. In 1621 King James I. of England granted Acadia to a Scotch friend, SIR WILLIAM ALEXANDER. In his charter the territory was named NOVA SCOTIA—Latin for New Scotland. His attempts at colonization, however, did not prove very successful, and eleven years later the country was restored to France.

We must now visit the banks of the St. Lawrence, where in the meantime important events have been happening.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER V

1. **French interest in America revived after sixty years of neglect.**
2. **New France placed in control of Fur-Companies.**
   De Monts receives grant of Acadia, 1604; founds Port Royal, 1605; abandons Port Royal, 1607. Poutrincourt returns to Port Royal.
3. **Port Royal captured by the English, 1613.**
4. **Acadia granted by James I. to Sir William Alexander, 1621.**

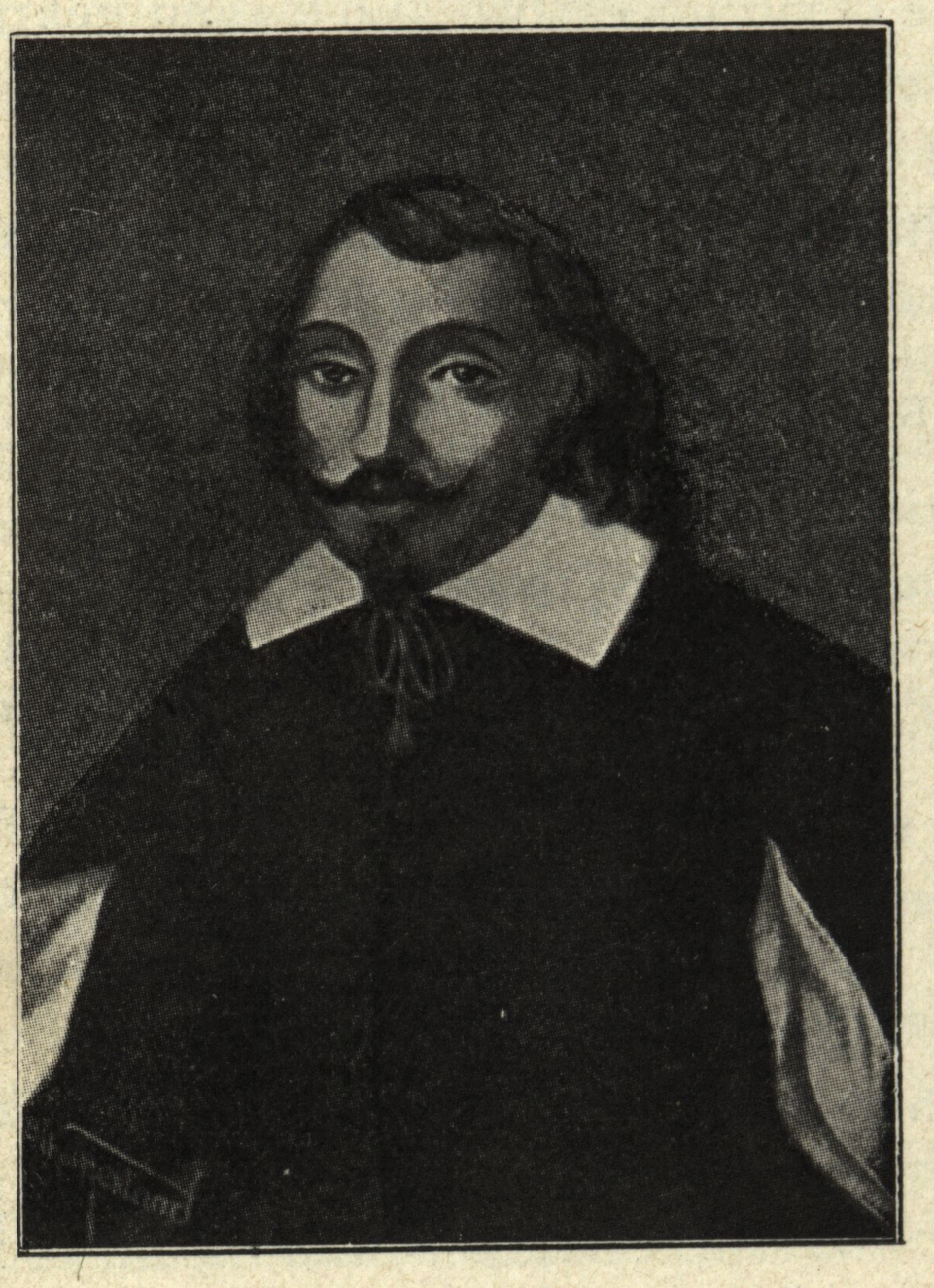
GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Why did the French neglect America for so long a period?
2. What motives led them to colonize New France?
3. On what grounds did the English claim Acadia? The French?

CHAPTER VI

CANADA UNDER CHAMPLAIN

Champlain.—In 1607 De Monts lost his monopoly of the fur trade, but managed to secure its renewal for a year on condition that he should found a new colony on the St. Lawrence. He did not care to make another voyage himself, and chose as leader of the expedition Champlain, whose merit he had learned in Acadia. Born beside the sea, Champlain had spent most of his life upon it, and had all the seaman's love of wandering and adventure. He had made voyages to the West Indies and to the St. Lawrence. He had fought, too, beside the king in the civil wars. In the Acadian adventure no one was more hardy, active and untiring than he; and so unfailing were his merry wit and good-humour that few could long remain ill-tempered or down-hearted in his company. In no less degree did he possess the high courage and the resourcefulness so necessary for a leader of



SAMUEL CHAMPLAIN.

men. He now gave his whole heart to the new enterprise, and for nearly thirty years we shall find him labouring patiently and unselfishly to plant the power of France in the wilds of Canada, and to convert the Indian tribes to Christianity.

Quebec Founded.—In July, 1608, De Monts' party, with Champlain in command, arrived at the great rock on which Stadacona had stood. No trace of the former town remained. The Algonquin Indians, now living near-by, called the spot QUEBEC, meaning *the place where the river narrows*, and this name, adopted by the French, it has ever since retained. The active Frenchmen went to work with a will, and in a short time finished a group of comfortable buildings, and surrounded them with a stockade of tree trunks.

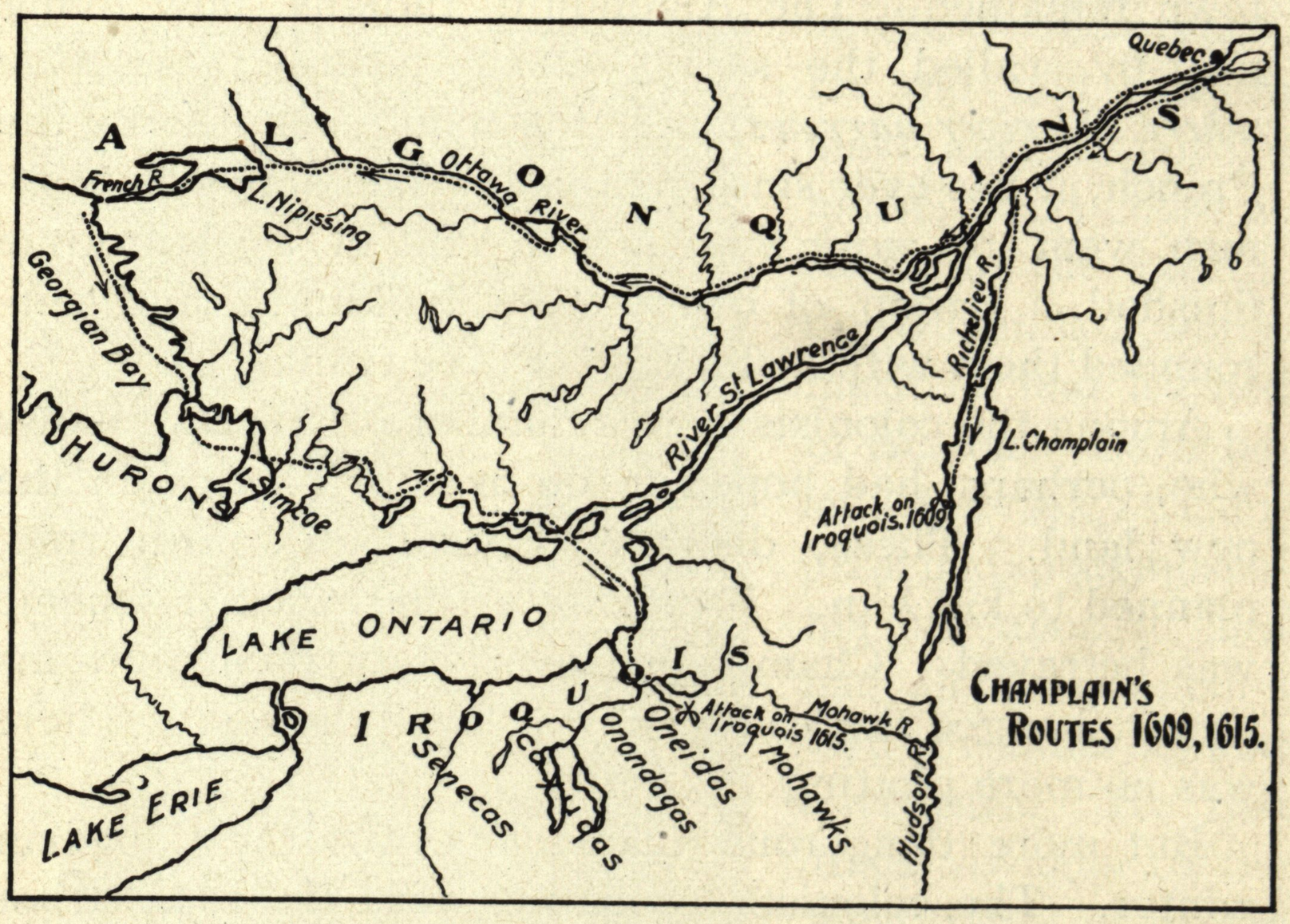
Among the colonists were a number of lawless fellows who, perhaps, had hoped to do as they pleased in the new land. These, disliking Champlain's firm rule, planned to kill him. Fortunately their wicked scheme was betrayed. Champlain cleverly got them into his power, hanged the leader and pardoned the rest. There was no more plotting.

But more dangerous than plots was the Canadian winter. The colonists, probably, were ill-prepared for the cold. Scurvy broke out; and when the ships returned from France in June, Champlain had but seven companions out of twenty-seven to welcome them.

Champlain's Indian Policy.—Champlain now prepared to carry out the plans for which the colony was founded. He left to others the care of the fur-trade in order that he might explore the forest wilderness and the mighty water-way by which he hoped a route might yet be found to the countries of the East. But trade and

exploration both depended on the good-will of the neighbouring Indians.

Now it so happened that the Algonquins on the St. Lawrence, and the Hurons who lived south of Georgian Bay, were at war with the Iroquois, the fiercest and most powerful of the Indian tribes. The allies thought it would be a fine thing if they could bring against their dreaded foe the aid of the French, who could, with the



thunder and lightning of their wonderful weapons, slay their enemies from afar. Champlain gladly agreed to help them, hoping to win their friendship and to make them dependent on the French.

The Fight with the Iroquois.—When a war party was collected from both tribes, Champlain with several followers joined it. They approached the Iroquois country by the route of the St. Lawrence and Richelieu rivers, and entered the beautiful lake to which Champlain gave his own name. When near its upper end

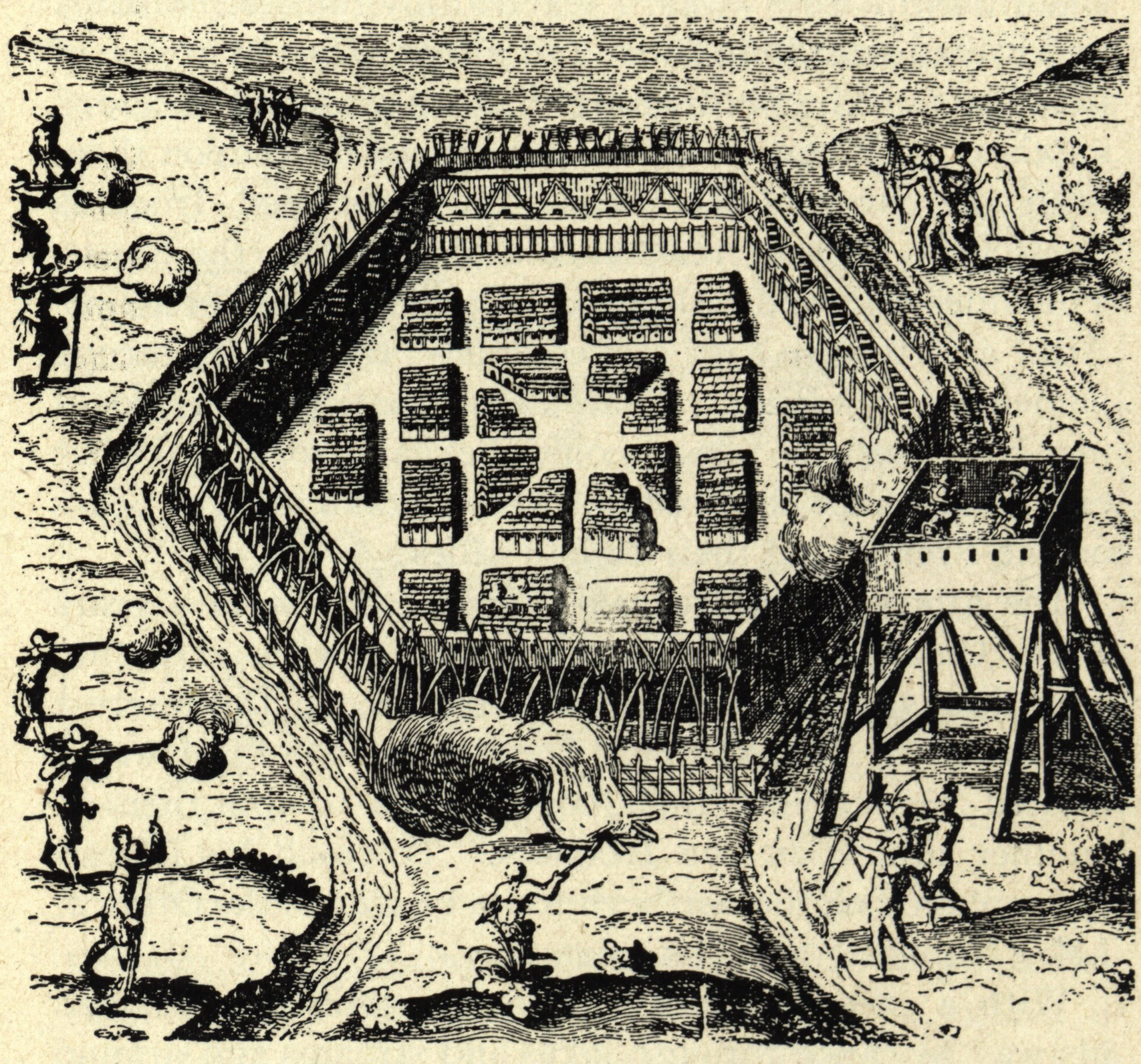
they came upon a party of the enemy. When the fight began in the adjoining wood, Champlain advanced to the front. The sight struck the Iroquois with amazement. "I looked at them," says Champlain, "and they looked at me. When I saw them getting ready to shoot their arrows at us, I levelled my musket, which I had loaded with four balls, and aimed straight at one of the chiefs. The shot brought down two and wounded another." When another Frenchman fired upon them from the cover of the woods, the astounded Iroquois thought no more of resistance and fled into the forest. The allies followed, killing or capturing most of them. After a victory so easy and complete, the victors turned homeward rejoicing. Champlain's satisfaction would not have been so great could he have foreseen what cruel vengeance the Iroquois were to take in after years on the French and their Indian allies.

The Attack on the Iroquois Capital.—For several years after, Champlain's time was occupied with exploring expeditions in Canada, and in labouring in the interest of the colony at the French Court. In 1615 the Hurons invited him to visit their country and to join them in another attack on the Iroquois. To reach his friends Champlain took the northern route by way of the Ottawa, Lake Nipissing and Georgian Bay.

With a great force of Huron warriors he continued his way by canoe through lakes and streams and around the eastern end of Lake Ontario. Four days more of stealthy creeping through the woods brought them to the Iroquois capital. It was surrounded with a palisade of heavy tree trunks.

Champlain ordered a wooden tower to be constructed and pushed on rollers against the wall so that the French could shoot down from it upon the garrison. When the

attack thus began, the Hurons, contrary to Champlain's orders, swarmed out into the open, leaping and yelling. They tried to set fire to the palisade, but stupidly lit it on the leeward side, where it was soon put out. The Iroquois fought bravely, and used their arrows and



CHAMPLAIN'S SKETCH OF HIS ATTACK ON THE IROQUOIS TOWN.

stones with great effect. The Hurons, disappointed and discouraged, retreated, carrying Champlain, who had been severely wounded, in a big basket.

After a winter spent in the Huron country, Champlain returned to Quebec in the spring. The colonists, who had given him up for dead, welcomed him with

great rejoicing; and well they might, for he alone was strong enough and wise enough to guide the colony through the weakness and troubles of its infancy.

The Weakness of the Colony.—During the next twelve years there were many changes in the Fur-Company. De Monts had long since retired, well-nigh ruined by his unselfish efforts to colonize Canada. His successors seemed to care only for the profits of the fur-trade. They sent out so few colonists, that the permanent population was still under a hundred, mostly employed in the fur-trade. One alone supported himself and his family by tilling the soil—let us remember the name of LOUIS HÉBERT, the first Canadian farmer.

The Iroquois were emboldened by their victory over Champlain, and now sent their war-parties to attack the Algonquins and the French. Quebec was in serious danger; for, owing to the neglect of the Company, the fort was so weakly defended that it was humorously described as having two old women for a garrison, and two hens for sentinels.

The Hundred Associates.—Champlain was untiring in his efforts for the welfare of the colony, and at last succeeded in enlisting the aid of CARDINAL RICHELIEU, now the real ruler of France. In 1627 this great statesman transferred the fur monopoly to a new company with himself at its head. It included about a hundred of the leading merchants and gentlemen interested in Canada—hence its name. Its charter required the Company to send four thousand colonists to Canada in the next ten years, to support them for three years after arrival, and to provide priests for each settlement. The new company acted promptly. Early in 1628 a fleet was sent out with colonists and supplies, but it never reached Quebec.

The English take Quebec.—In the same year war broke out between France and England. An expedition under KIRK was dispatched by the English to drive the French from Canada. Kirk sailed up the St. Lawrence but did not venture to attack Quebec. At Tadoussac, however, he fell in with the fleet sent by the Hundred Associates and sank or captured every ship.

Champlain and his hungry companions at Quebec awaited its coming in vain. During the winter they suffered terribly, and when Kirk returned in 1629, the French were glad to surrender to save themselves from starvation. Champlain and the other officials were sent to France, and for three years the English remained at Quebec, making what profit they could from the fur trade. In 1632 the war was ended by the treaty of ST. GERMAIN, and Canada and Acadia were restored to France.

Champlain's Return and Death.—In 1633 Champlain again landed at Quebec. He was now the representative of the authority of the Hundred Associates, and at once resumed his work in the country for whose welfare he had given the best years of his life. There was much to be done, for the colony was in a weak and disorganized condition. More than ever he devoted himself to his religious duties, and gave much thought to the plans of the missionaries, believing that "the conversion of a single soul is of more importance than the conquest of a kingdom." But his strength was failing. He was stricken with paralysis in the autumn of 1635, and after lingering helpless for ten weeks, he passed away on Christmas Day. We shall read of many great and good men in the story of Canada, but of none more pure, unselfish or heroic than this "Father of New France."

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VI

1. Champlain.

a. His character and previous career.
b. He founds Quebec, 1608.
c. He attacks the Iroquois on Lake Champlain, 1609.
d. He invades the Iroquois country, 1615.
e. He devotes all his energies to the welfare of the colony.

2. The Company of the Hundred Associates founded, 1627.

3. Quebec captured by the English, 1629.

4. Canada and Acadia restored to France, 1632.

5. Champlain returns to Canada as governor under the Hundred Associates, 1633.

6. His death, 1635.

General Questions

1. Write an account of the founding of Quebec.
2. What reasons prompted Champlain to make war upon the Iroquois?
3. Describe his attack upon the Iroquois stronghold.
4. Against what difficulties and discouragements had Champlain to contend?
5. Write a composition on the career and character of Champlain.

CHAPTER VII

THE RULE OF THE HUNDRED ASSOCIATES, 1633-1663

The Company Neglectful, the Church Active.—The Company of the Hundred Associates were now the rulers of Canada. They chose MONTMAGNY to succeed Champlain as governor. But it soon appeared that, whoever was governor, the new company did not differ much from the old in their treatment of Canada. They were eager enough to reap the profits of the fur monopoly, but were very unwilling to undertake the expense of sending out settlers to the colony, whose presence there would make the enforcement of that monopoly the more difficult. At no time during their rule did the white population exceed two thousand, and very few of that number were really settlers who had made their homes in Canada.

But if the Company were neglectful of their duty, the Church was most active in good work. There was now great religious zeal in France, and the Jesuits and other orders of priests were everywhere trying to extend the influence of the Roman Catholic Church. Canada was thought to be one of the most promising fields of labour. A large number of priests accompanied Champlain on his return in 1633, and for a time the Church was by far the greatest power in the colony. In 1637 a seminary was founded at Quebec for the education of priests, with a school for Indian boys attached. MADAME DE LA PELTRIE and MARIE GUYART established a convent

for French and Indian girls, and about the same time a hospital was built with money contributed by a rich lady in France.

The Founding of Montreal, 1642.—Montreal owes its origin to another religious enterprise. A company of men eager for the conversion of the Indians planned to found a mission settlement from which the scattered tribes could be more easily reached than from Quebec. They chose the Island of Montreal as the most suitable site for their purpose. MAISONNEUVE was selected leader of the enterprise, and was sent out with a party of colonists. At Quebec they were warned by Montmagny of the dangers from the Iroquois to which they would be exposed. "It is my duty and my honour to found a colony at Montreal," replied the courageous leader, "and I would go, if every tree were an Iroquois." The settlement was finished and enclosed with a palisade before the enemy was aware of its existence, but afterwards it was unsafe for the colonists to

MAISONNEUVE (from statue in Montreal).

visit the neighbouring fields or woods except in armed bands. The people of Montreal spared no effort to attract the friendly Indians to the place, not so much to trade with them as to teach them. A hospital was built where their sick and wounded might be cared for. When the warriors were absent on some distant expedition, the women and children were sheltered and fed by the French.

The Jesuit Mission among Hurons.—The Hurons, living in large stationary villages, offered a much more promising field for missionary labour than the roving bands of Algonquins. In 1634 three Jesuits made their home in the principal town of the tribe and began their work. The Indians treated them kindly enough and were greatly interested in the clock, the hand-mill, the magnifying glass, and other wonders shown by their visitors; but for a long time they refused to accept the new faith. When pestilence swept off great numbers of the tribe, the missionaries were blamed for it by the "medicine-men." For a time their lives were in great danger. Gradually, however, their patience, kindness and unselfishness won the savage hearts of the Indians, and the number of converts grew steadily.

Destruction of the Hurons.—But now the Huron nation was threatened with ruin. The power of their Iroquois enemies had been greatly increased by the possession of fire-arms obtained from the Dutch of New York, and they now determined to destroy the Hurons and their French allies. In 1648 they suddenly burst in upon the mission village of St. Joseph when most of the men were absent. Many of the women and children were crowded into the chapel where service was being conducted by the priest Daniel. "Fly!" he cried to the terrified throng; "as for me I must die

here. We shall meet in heaven." Coming from the church to meet the Iroquois, he was at once riddled with their bullets and fell dead with the name of Jesus on his lips. The village was burned and most of its people were killed on the spot, or tortured to death at the homes of their captors. A like fate overtook the other towns.

At ST. LOUIS, in the Mission of St. Ignace, the Hurons resisted bravely but in vain. The missionary, BRÉBEUF, was captured with the others, and bore the most fiendish tortures without a murmur. Maddened by his heroic endurance and his warnings to themselves, his tormentors thrust red-hot irons down his throat to silence him, and poured boiling water on his head in mockery of the rite of baptism.

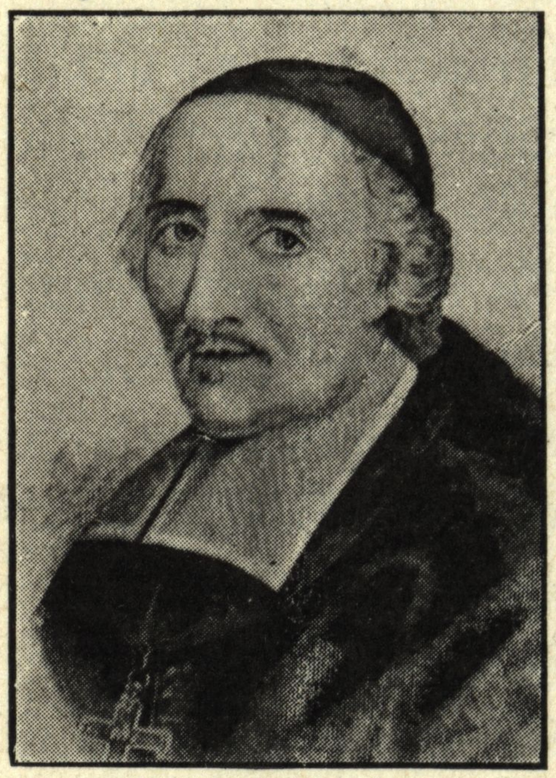
Panic-stricken at such disasters, the Hurons abandoned their country. With the sorrowing missionaries they descended to Quebec to seek protection from the French.

How Canada was Saved, 1660.—The war-parties of the Iroquois now turned their whole force against Canada. The number of the soldiers in the colony was so small that the French could make no headway against the enemy, but could only cling to the fortified posts of Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal. When they learned that twelve hundred Iroquois were on the march, it seemed as if the fate of the Hurons awaited themselves.

At Montreal there was a young officer, DAULAC, or Dollard, who resolved to strike a blow at the enemy. With sixteen young volunteers he ascended the Ottawa to meet a party of Iroquois who were approaching by that route. His party encamped at the foot of the LONG SAULT RAPIDS, where they occupied a small fort, previously made by some war-party. Here they were joined by a small force of Algonquin and Huron Indians.

When an advance party of the enemy was seen descending the rapids, the allies opened fire from the bank, but were compelled to take refuge in their fort when the main body arrived. For three days the Iroquois kept up the attack, but were repulsed with such loss that they sent for five hundred of their warriors who were awaiting them below Montreal. In the meantime the number of the garrison was greatly reduced by the desertion of the Hurons, who hoped by this means to save their lives. On the arrival of their friends, the Iroquois renewed their attacks with redoubled vigour. They met with fierce resistance. At last, protected by thick wooden shields, they reached the foot of the palisade, hacked their way through and shot down the defenders, who fought like lions to the end. The Iroquois had won, but at what a cost! They had no heart for further attacks on such foes, and returned home, leaving Canada safe for the time.

Laval and the Liquor Traffic.—The peace of the colony was also disturbed by quarrels between the clergy and the officials of the Company. The leading churchman of this time was LAVAL, afterwards the bishop of Canada. He was a man of high rank and strong character, and was very zealous in extending the influence of the church. As representative of the Pope, he insisted that he should have more honour and power than the governor. In these disputes, Laval, supported by the Jesuits, usually got his own way.



BISHOP LAVAL.

He was, however, unable to stop the LIQUOR TRAFFIC. The Indians became extremely fond of "fire-water," as

they called the French brandy. Under its influence they became little better than madmen, and were guilty of all kinds of crime and violence. The missionaries lost all control over them, and the good effects of years of patient toil and teaching were destroyed. The traders, however, refused to stop the sale, for they found their profits were greatly increased by it. They were upheld by the governors. Their excuse was that, if the traffic were stopped, the Indians would carry their furs to the Dutch of New York, and the trade of Canada would be ruined.

Royal Government Established, 1663.—Laval now saw that the Company would never rescue the colony from the evil plight into which it had fallen. He repaired to France and persuaded the king to cancel the charter and to assume the government of Canada himself.

Acadia.—After Acadia was restored to the French in 1632, trading privileges were divided between two men, D'Aulnay and La Tour. Disputes arose between them and soon grew into open war. On one occasion D'Aulnay besieged La Tour's fort at St. John, when the owner and most of his men were absent. He met with such a stout resistance from La Tour's wife, that he succeeded in capturing it only through the treachery of a sentinel. The base D'Aulnay put the garrison to death as traitors, and compelled their heroic mistress with a halter around her neck to witness the execution. Various changes followed. In 1654 a force from New England occupied Port Royal. The English colonists did not like to have the French so near them and on land which they claimed themselves. Besides, they wished to control the fisheries of Acadia, which were much better than their own. In 1667, however, Charles II. of England restored Acadia to France.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VII

1. **The activity of the Church.**
   - *a.* establishing seminaries, convents, hospitals; 1634
   - *b.* founding Montreal as a mission station; 1642
   - *c.* establishing missions among Hurons. 1634
2. **The hostility of the Iroquois.**
   - *a.* Destruction of the Hurons. 1648
   - *b.* Attacks on Canada. 1660
   - *c.* Canada saved by the heroism of Daulac. 1660
3. **The neglect of the Company.**
   - *a.* sending few settlers or soldiers;
   - *b.* destroying the effect of the missions by the sale of liquor to the Indians.
4. **The charter of the Company cancelled through the influence of Laval, 1663.**

General Questions

1. What were the most important events of this period?
2. What were the most important names of the time?
3. Describe the founding of Montreal.
4. Describe the work of the Jesuit missionaries among the Hurons.
5. What reasons can you give for the superiority of the Iroquois over the other Indian tribes?
6. Why was the charter of the Company of the Hundred Associates cancelled?

RETURN OF CHAMPLAIN

CHAPTER VIII

EARLY ENGLISH COLONIES

Virginia.—Towards the close of the sixteenth century England grew rich and strong. Her explorers and traders turned their attention to America. One of the great men of the time was SIR WALTER RALEIGH. In 1583 he sent out an expedition under the command of his half-brother, SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT, to form a settlement somewhere on the eastern coast of the continent. After taking possession of NEWFOUNDLAND, Gilbert continued on his way, but perished in a storm which destroyed four of his five vessels.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

Nothing daunted by this disaster, Raleigh sought and obtained permission to occupy the region extending from Florida to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He called the land VIRGINIA after Elizabeth, the virgin queen of England. Raleigh made several attempts to colonize this country, but none of them proved successful. After a time he was thrown into prison by the new king, James I., and could do no more. A company of merchants was formed, however, and in 1607 they planted the colony of JAMESTOWN, the first permanent English settlement in America. At first the settlers suffered many hardships, but in time they grew prosperous through the cultivation of tobacco, for which they found ready sale in England.

New England.—A few years later, a settlement of another kind was made farther north. There were now religious troubles in England. A number of people called Puritans wished to worship God in a way different from that required by the Established Church in England. The king and the bishops insisted that all should use the same religious services. Many of the Puritans preferred to seek new homes where they might enjoy liberty of worship. In 1620 a number of them, afterwards called the PILGRIM FATHERS, sailed for America, and settled at PLYMOUTH, on the coast of Massachusetts. Many thousands followed, and made other settlements along the neighbouring shores. These people still loved their old home, and called their new home NEW ENGLAND.

Unlike the first settlers in New France, these English colonists supported themselves from the beginning. They spun the wool from their own sheep and made their own clothes; they raised crops of grain for food. Living beside the sea, they soon engaged in fishing. They built ships and carried timber and other articles to the mother country. The king was, perhaps, glad to be rid of them, and in the new country they were left to govern themselves much as they pleased.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VIII

1. **English Colonization.**
   - *a.* Raleigh's unsuccessful efforts to colonize Virginia.
   - *b.* Jamestown founded by the Virginia Company, 1607.
   - *c.* New England settled by Puritan refugees, 1620.
   - *d.* Contrast between the colonies of New England and New France.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What motives led to the Engiish colonization of America?
2. On what was the English claim to this part of America based?
3. Mention three points of difference between the colonization of New England and that of New France.

Part III. Growth under Royal Government

CHAPTER IX

THE GROWTH OF THE COLONY

The New Government. — When King Louis XIV. ended the rule of the Hundred Associates, he placed the government of Canada in the hands of three officials, the governor, the bishop, and the intendant. There was also a "Superior Council" to advise and assist them. All were appointed by the king and were responsible for their acts to him alone. The governor, the first in rank, looked after the defence of the colony and had the management of Indian affairs. Church matters were controlled by the bishop; he appointed priests to the various settlements and removed them at his will. Education, too, was in his hands. The intendant was responsible for the internal affairs of the country—public works, trade, police, and the spending of all public money. He enforced the laws and could make new ones, and was commissioned "to order everything as he shall see just and proper." It will be seen that this form of government left no power in the hands of the people. Quarrels between the officials could be settled, and wrongs could be righted only by the word of the king, three thousand miles away. Great abuses grew out of such a system, and many of them were never removed.

The Iroquois Punished.—The first need of the country was protection from the raids of the Iroquois. In 1665

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the MARQUIS DE TRACY was sent out as viceroy of all the French possessions in America, and with him came the famous CARIGNAN REGIMENT, numbering twelve hundred men. Forts were at once built on the Richelieu to close the route by which the Indians usually invaded Canada. Next year Tracy led a strong force through the forests against the MOHAWKS, the nearest and most hostile of the Five Nations. The Indians were panic-stricken when they saw the numbers of the French, and offered no resistance. Their five towns were destroyed, together with their supplies of corn for the winter. This blow had a deep effect on all the Iroquois tribes. They gladly made peace, and for twenty years the colony had rest from their attacks.

Increase of Population.—The peace made it safe to settle in the country, but the number of actual settlers was still very small. The king resolved that it should be increased. He sent agents through the northern and western districts of France to collect bands of young men, whom he sent to Canada at his own expense. There they received farms which they were expected to clear of forest and to cultivate. Shiploads of girls were then dispatched, also at the king's expense, to provide them with wives. When the war with the Iroquois was ended, the Carignan regiment was disbanded, and large grants of money and land were made to officers and men who were willing to remain in the country. These settlers were placed principally along the Richelieu, where they would prove of great service, should the Indian troubles be renewed. It should be noticed that settlers did not come to Canada, as to New England, unaided by the state. When the attention of the king and his ministers was occupied with wars in Europe, emigration from France almost ceased.

Method of Settlement.—The system by which these new settlers held their lands was different from that now found in Canada. Large areas were granted to gentlemen on condition of clearing them within a certain time. These *seigneurs*, as they were called, kept a part of their estate for themselves, and divided the rest among tenants who were willing to cultivate the land and to pay a small annual rent of a cent or two an acre, together with some chickens, or some wheat. The tenant, or *habitant*, was also obliged to work a certain number of days a year on his seigneur's farm, to grind his grain at his mill, and to give him one fish in eleven for the privilege of fishing in the seigniorial stream. These conditions could not always be enforced; sometimes they were changed to a money payment, and in after years were frequently the cause of much trouble. The farms of the habitants were long narrow strips running back from the river, on which the seigneury usually fronted. The houses were built in a row along the bank, for in those days the streams were the only highways of travel. But in the upper part of the colony they were often clustered around the seigneur's manor house, and were protected by a palisade against attack from Indians.

JEAN TALON.

Talon and his Work.—The first intendant was Talon, who came with De Tracy in 1665. The wide powers of his office gave him great opportunity; and for seven years he laboured earnestly, though often fruitlessly, for the prosperity of Canada. On his advice horses, cattle and sheep were distributed among the colonists without charge. He

encouraged the people to make their own clothes, shoes and hats; to grow flax and hemp, and to manufacture soap and potash. He built a ship, in the hope that others would follow his example, and dispatched her with a load of fish, peas and timber to the West Indies. In the records of the time we are told that "he studied with the affection of a father how to succour the poor and cause the colony to grow, giving aid from the king to such as needed it." The king's aid, indeed, was asked and received for most new enterprises, so that the people grew accustomed to depend for success on it rather than on their own energy and foresight.

A COUREUR DE BOIS.

The Fur-Trade and the Coureurs de Bois. — Fur was still by far the most important article of commerce. The monopoly, transferred to a new company for a while, was abolished in 1674, and the king sold licenses to trade. In order to retain control over the traffic he ordered that it should be confined to the settlements, and established annual fairs at Montreal and Three Rivers, to which the Indians might gather from far and near and exchange their furs for the knives, hatchets, guns and copper kettles of the French.

But many adventurous traders, regardless of law or punishment, carried their wares, brandy especially, to the Indian villages far into the wilderness. Often they were in secret league with some high official who gave them protection and shared their

profits. Such were the famous *coureurs de bois*—bush-rangers. Among their number were the most active and high-spirited of the settlers, for many grew weary of the hard, monotonous life of farm clearing and the strict rule of the church and state, and escaped to the wild free life of the woods. This emigration was a serious drain on the strength of the colony. Yet the services of such men were not wholly lost; for in the work of exploring and occupying the West, the *coureurs de bois* played no unimportant part.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IX

1. **The new government.**
   Powers of the governor, the bishop, the intendant.
2. **The Iroquois subdued.**
   a. The Richelieu fortified.
   De Tracy humbles the Mohawks, 1666.
   b. The Iroquois sue for peace.
3. **Settlement of the country.**
   a. The king's colonizing activity.
   b. The establishment of seigniorial tenure.
   c. The useful labours of Talon.

General Questions

1. Mention some of the benefits and some of the evils produced by the royal government.
2. Describe the method by which settlements were now formed.
3. Give a brief account of Talon and his work.

CHAPTER X

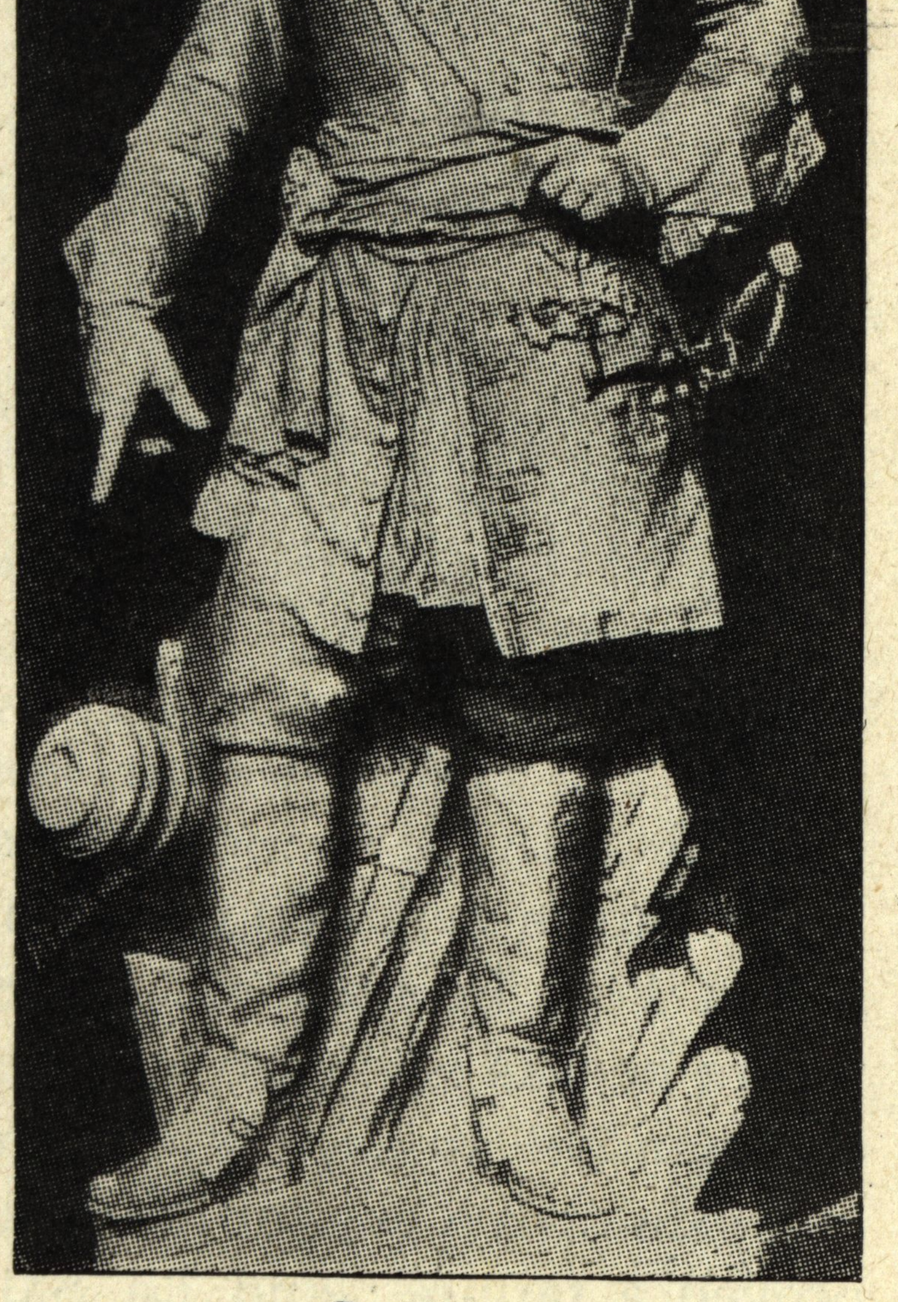
FRONTENAC. THE WEST OCCUPIED

Frontenac.—In 1672 Talon and Courcelle, the governor, returned to France. The latter was succeeded by Count Frontenac, one of the most remarkable of Canadian governors. He had long served in the armies of France, and had proved himself to be a brave and skilful soldier. But he was proud and obstinate, and was moved almost to madness by opposition to his will. Soon after his arrival Frontenac quarrelled with the other officials. Laval, now bishop, was equally unyielding in temper, and the two constantly disputed over the old questions of conflicting authority and of the liquor traffic. The intendant sided with the bishop, and accused Frontenac, who was poor, of secretly engaging in the fur-trade to increase his fortune. The governor returned the charge. Probably both were right.

Frontenac showed great skill in dealing with the Indians, on whose good-will depended the success of the French advance to the West. He won their affection by the richness of his gifts, by joining in their sports and conforming to their ways when among them; while his proud bearing and air of authority always held them in awe. No governor since Champlain gained such an influence over them.

The Advance to the West.—A year before the arrival of Frontenac, Talon had dispatched a small party to Sault Ste. Marie at the outlet of Lake Superior. There the flag of France was raised in the presence of the assembled tribes to show that she took formal possession

of all the region of the Upper Lakes. In 1673 MARQUETTE, a missionary, and JOLIET, a trader, made their way from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi, and descended that river to the mouth of the Arkansas. In order to prevent the furs coming from these regions from being diverted by English traders to Albany, Frontenac built a strong fort at the outlet of Lake Ontario, where Kingston now stands, and gave it his own name.



Frontenac

La Salle Occupies the Mississippi Valley. — There was living at this time in Canada a young man, Robert de La Salle, seigneur of Lachine. He was of a bold and adventurous nature, and was fired with the ambition to add the West to the dominions of France, and to explore the Mississippi to its mouth. It might be found to flow into the Pacific, he thought, and would in that case afford the long-sought-for route to the countries of the

East. Frontenac heartily supported his plans, granted a charter to trade in furs and buffalo hides, and transferred to him Fort Frontenac as a base of supplies.

From this point La Salle made many journeys to the West. He established posts on Lake Michigan and on the Illinois river, a tributary of the Mississippi, and opened up trade with the Illinois and other Indian tribes. In 1682 he descended the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, taking formal possession of the whole valley, and naming it LOUISIANA in honour of the king of France.

LA SALLE.

In the same year Frontenac and Duchesneau, the intendant, were recalled, so that the colony might have peace from their incessant quarrels. In the former, La Salle lost a powerful friend. His enemies deprived him of his monopoly and creditors seized Fort Frontenac. La Salle returned to France, where he was regarded as a hero. The king put him in command of an expedition to enter the Gulf of Mexico and establish a post at the mouth of the Mississippi. It proved a failure; and La Salle, disliked for his stern rule and haughty manner, was murdered by some of his men.

France retained the region opened up by these explorations, not for settlement, but for trade with the

natives, and in time a line of forts extended from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico. At each were to be found the French trader to buy the Indian's furs, the French missionary to teach him Christianity and loyalty to France, and the French soldier to overawe him, should he become troublesome.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER X

1. **Frontenac.**
   - *a.* His character.
   - *b.* His quarrels with the bishop and the intendant.
   - *c.* His success in dealing with the Indians.
   - *d.* His recall by the king.
2. **The occupation of the West.**
   - *a.* The proclamation of French rule over region of Upper Lakes.
   - *b.* The discovery of the Mississippi by Marquette and Joliet.
   - *c.* The building of Fort Frontenac.
   - *d.* La Salle explores the Mississippi to its mouth and takes possession of Louisiana, 1682.
   - *e.* Failure of La Salle's expedition to the Gulf of Mexico by sea.

General Questions

1. Describe the career and character of La Salle.
2. What were the motives of the French in occupying the West?
3. By what agents were their plans carried out?
4. Why was Frontenac recalled?

CHAPTER XI

TWENTY YEARS OF WAR

Iroquois Hostility. — About the time of La Salle's establishment among the Illinois, their country was invaded by the Iroquois. They were led by the needs of trade as well as by love of conquest; for, the beaver having become scarce in their own land, the skins from the West became their only means of buying the necessary supplies of arms and ammunition from the English. Their war-parties began to plunder the French and to slaughter the Indians who traded with them. The power of France in the West was thus in danger of overthrow almost as soon as it had been established.

Frontenac's strong hand had been withdrawn, and his successor, LA BARRE, was a weak, greedy old man who hoped to enrich himself by the western trade. So alarmed was he at the danger that he agreed to a treaty which promised peace to the French, but left their Indian allies to the mercy of the Iroquois. For this the king recalled him, and sent out DENONVILLE with orders to pursue a bolder policy. In 1687 the new governor gathered a great force of soldiers, *coureurs de bois* and Indians to attack the SENECAS, the most hostile of the Iroquois tribes. Their towns were burnt without much resistance; but, though the nest was destroyed, the wasps were not killed, and their stings were soon felt. On his way to the Seneca country Denonville had seized some friendly Iroquois and had sent them to France to serve as galley-slaves. The whole Iroquois nation were enraged at this mad act as

well as at the raid on the Senecas. Their war-parties were again let loose on Canada, and life was unsafe outside of the fortified posts.

At last Denonville proposed peace, intending, like La Barre, to sacrifice the friendly Indian tribes. KONDIARONK, a noted Huron chief, saw the danger to his people. With a few warriors he fell upon the Iroquois ambassadors and killed a number. Professing ignorance of their mission, he craftily laid the blame of his treacherous act on the French. The Iroquois readily believed him, and took a terrible revenge.

The Massacre of Lachine.—In August, 1689, fifteen hundred warriors under cover of night and a terrific thunderstorm, suddenly fell upon the village of Lachine, a few miles above Montreal. Roused by their wild war-whoops, the inhabitants rushed forth only to fall by the tomahawk of the savages. Two hundred were butchered and many were captured and reserved for future torture. Although Denonville was at Montreal with a considerable force, he made no serious effort to drive the Iroquois off, and for weeks they roamed over the surrounding country, killing and plundering at will.

Canada seemed on the brink of destruction. For two years the harvests had been destroyed and the fur-trade stopped. The western tribes were ready to desert to the foe, and now came the news that war had been declared between France and England. In such a crisis a strong man was needed, and in October Frontenac arrived to replace Denonville as governor.

King William's War, 1689–1697.—This war in Europe was caused by the determination of Louis of France to restore James II. to the throne of England, from which he had been driven by the English people under the leadership of William of Orange. In America

there were colonial disputes to settle. The English of New York were alarmed at the westward advance of the French, and were accused by the latter of inciting Iroquois raids on Canada. Acadia and New England both claimed what is now the state of Maine, and border warfare had already begun. In the north, too, there was strife; for an expedition from Canada had recently seized the newly-established trading-posts of the English Company of Hudson's Bay.

Border Warfare.—On his arrival in Canada, Frontenac acted with his usual promptness and energy. He sent a force to Michillimackinac, an important trading station at the entrance of Lake Michigan, with a message to the neighbouring tribes commanding them to return to their allegiance, and promising them protection from the Iroquois. During the winter he prepared three war-parties to give the English colonies a taste of what Canada had suffered from the Iroquois. In turn, SCHENECTADY in New York, SALMON FALLS in New Hampshire, and CASCO (now Portland) in Maine, were surprised and destroyed. Their inhabitants were slaughtered or carried away captive. These successes greatly encouraged the Canadians and restored Frontenac's influence over the Western Indians. They did not so much weaken, as exasperate the English.

The English Attack on Canada, 1690.—With the return of spring Massachusetts sent a force under PHIPS to occupy Port Royal and other settlements in Acadia. In the summer the other colonies joined her in organizing two expeditions against Canada. One was to start from Albany and advance against Montreal by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Phips, in command of the other, sailed from Boston for the St. Lawrence with thirty-two ships and over two thousand men. His

soldiers were brave, but undisciplined and ill-supplied with provisions and ammunition. It was the middle of October before he arrived at Quebec. Frontenac had greatly strengthened the fortifications. When summoned to surrender, he haughtily replied that such a demand would be answered only by the cannon's mouth. When the English attacked, the fiery old governor conducted the defence with such spirit that Phips, finding his supply of powder and cannon ball running low after a week's fighting, drew off and sailed for home. In Quebec there was great rejoicing over the deliverance. Bonfires blazed in honour of Frontenac, and, as a more lasting memorial of his triumph, the church of "Notre Dame des Victoires" was erected.

CHURCH OF NOTRE DAME DES VICTOIRES, QUEBEC.

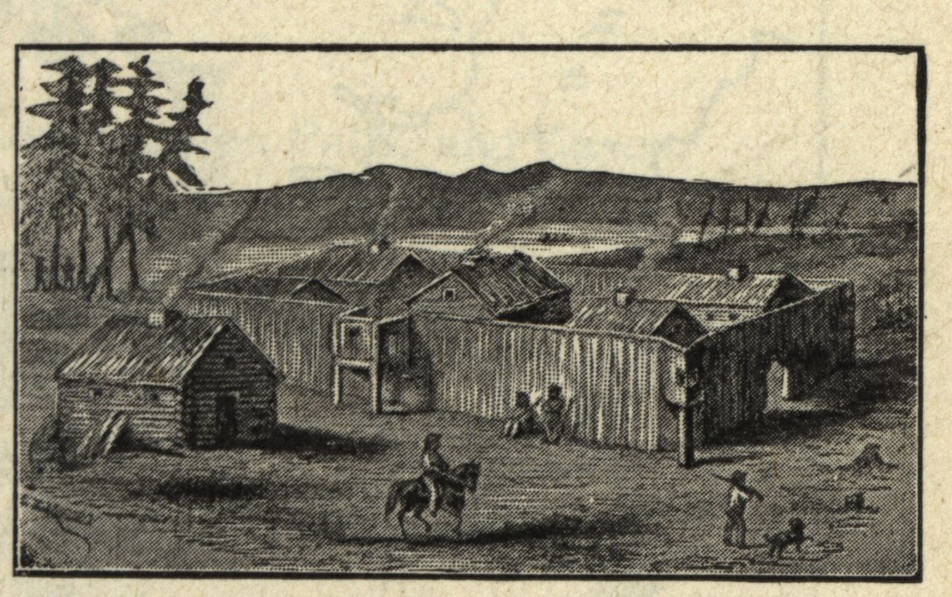
The expedition from Albany fared no better. It advanced to the head of Lake Champlain; but its numbers, too small at first, were greatly reduced by smallpox. When the Iroquois refused to assist them, the project was abandoned.

The Heroine of Verchères.—Canada was now safe from serious attack from the English, but she was still

exposed to the raids of the Iroquois. The *habitants* took shelter in the forts, and work on the farms could be safely done only by armed bands. The dangers of the time and the spirit with which they were often met, are illustrated by the defence of Verchères by the little daughter of its seigneur. In the absence of her parents a large party of Indians surprised and slaughtered the *habitants* in the neighbouring fields. Madeleine, a girl of fourteen, resolved to hold the fort to the death. She had for garrison her two brothers of ten and twelve, an old man of eighty, and two soldiers, who proved so cowardly as to be of little use. "I placed my brothers on two of the bastions, the old man on the third, and I took the fourth; and all night, in spite of wind, snow and hail, the cries of 'All's well!' were kept up. One would have thought the place was full of soldiers . . . I may say with truth that I did not eat or sleep for twice twenty-four hours, but kept always on the bastion. I always kept a cheerful and smiling face, and encouraged my little company with hope of speedy succour." The Indians, deceived by such a bold front, did not venture a direct attack; but prowled around until driven off by a force from Montreal.

The War Ended.—Peace was declared between England and France by the TREATY OF RYSWICK, 1697. Acadia and Hudson's Bay Territory were restored to the French. Peace with the Iroquois did not come until some years later, and Frontenac did not live to see it. Worn with age and the labours of his office, he died in 1698. However grave may have been the faults of his character, there can be no doubt of the greatness of his services to Canada during the late war. "He found it under Denonville in humiliation and terror, and he left it in honour, and almost in triumph."

Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713.—In a short time war again broke out between France and Britain over the succession to the throne of Spain. In America it was named after the sovereign then ruling in England. Canada suffered little, for the Iroquois remained neutral; but the frontiers of New England were again cruelly ravaged by the Abenakis of Northern Maine under French leaders. It was difficult to return an effective blow against so light-footed a foe. The sea afforded an open way to Acadia, however, and naval forces were sent at various times to destroy the settlements on the Bay of Fundy. In 1710 two thousand men under NICHOLSON sailed from Boston against Port Royal. The place was captured, and re-named ANNAPOLIS in honour of the queen. A garrison was left to hold it, for the people of New England were resolved that it should not again be returned to the French.



FRONTIER VILLAGE PALISADE, 1704.

Next year Britain sent a great fleet and army under ADMIRAL WALKER and GENERAL HILL to take Quebec. At the entrance to the St. Lawrence several ships struck on the reefs in a fog, and nearly a thousand men were drowned. Although they still had a force large enough for their purpose, the leaders, who were quite unfit for their positions, resolved to abandon their task, and returned to England.

The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.—In Europe France suffered many defeats from the great English general, Marlborough. To secure peace she was compelled to

make many concessions, and HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORY, NEWFOUNDLAND and ACADIA were yielded to the English. The Iroquois were declared to be British subjects.

The boundaries of Acadia were not defined, but it was provided that the islands of Cape Breton and St. John (Prince Edward) should remain French. By this treaty French ambition in America received its first decided check.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XI

1. War with the Iroquois.

a. Anger of Iroquois at extension of French territory westward.
b. Their attacks on Western tribes friendly to French.
c. Denonville's treacherous seizure of neutral Iroquois.
d. Denonville's attack on the Senecas.
e. Kondiaronk prevents peace.
f. Iroquois attack upon Lachine, 1689.

2. War with English, 1689-97.

a. Frontenac's return.
b. Attacks on Schenectady, Salmon Falls, and Casco.
c. Phips captures Port Royal.
d. Phips attacks Quebec, 1690.
e. Treaty of Ryswick, 1697.

3. Second War with English, 1702-13.

a. English retake Port Royal, 1710.
b. Failure of English expedition against Quebec, 1711.
c. Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.
Hudson's Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Acadia ceded to Britain.

General Questions

1. What were the causes of the Iroquois war?
2. Write a composition on Frontenac.
3. Tell in your own words the story of Madeleine of Verchères.
4. What parts of North America were held by the French, by the English and by the Spanish after the Treaty of Utrecht?

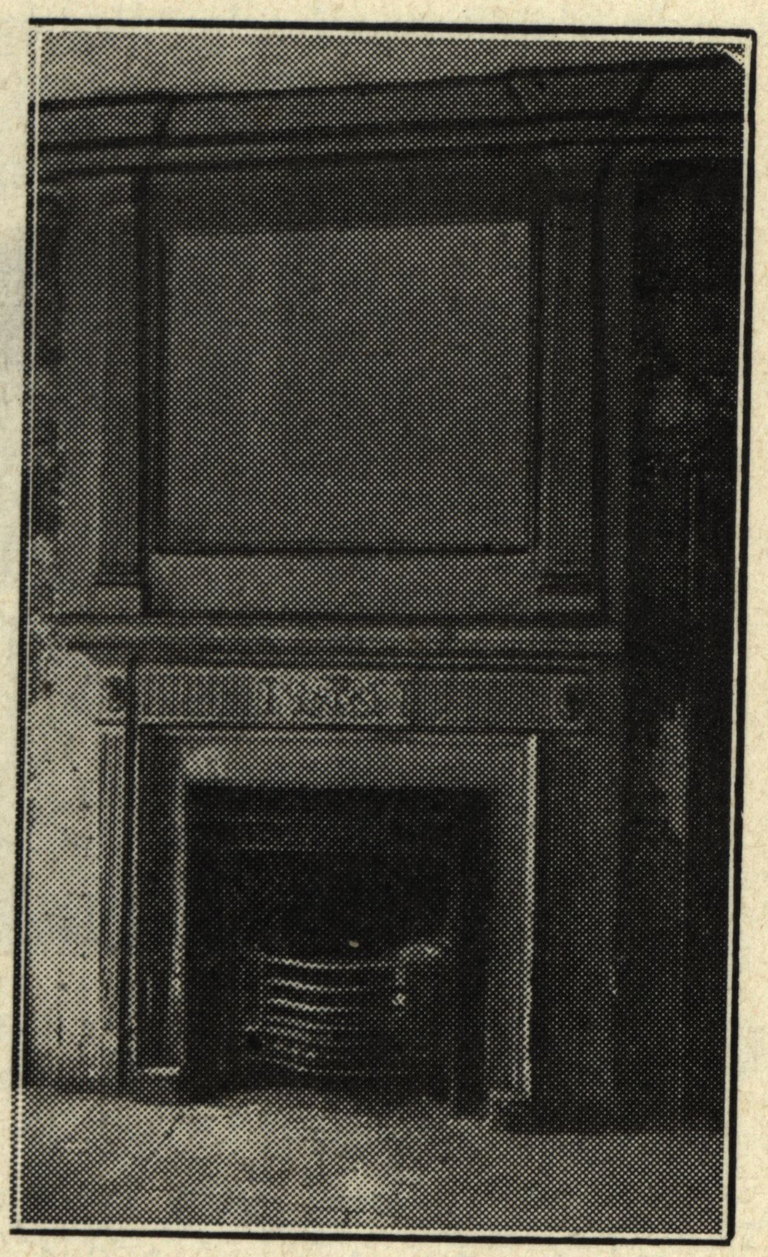
CHAPTER XII

THIRTY YEARS OF PEACE

The West.—North America enjoyed an interval of peace after the treaty of Utrecht. France had ceded her territory most unwillingly and she used this breathing space to strengthen her position in the colonies she retained. As we have seen, Louis XIV. was unwilling to allow many of his subjects to emigrate from France, where they were needed to supply the losses in his constant wars, and settle in the Mississippi valley where they would be almost beyond his control. After seventy years of French rule, the farming population of this vast country was confined to three or four tiny hamlets on the Mississippi and Detroit rivers. Its trade, however, was constantly increasing in value, and France added post after post to keep the English out, and to maintain her own hold upon it. FORT CHARTRES on the Mississippi, six hundred miles north of New Orleans, guarded the route from that river to Lake Michigan. MICHILLIMACKINAC controlled the passage between Lakes Michigan and Huron; and DETROIT, that between Lakes Huron and Erie. FORT NIAGARA protected the line of the Niagara River. ROUILLE (Toronto) on the north shore of Lake Ontario, and FRONTENAC, at its outlet, completed the chain.

Cape Breton.—After the loss of Acadia France attached much importance to the island of Cape Breton. It was, as yet, almost unsettled, but in 1720 French engineers began to lay out the town of LOUISBURG on the southern shore. At an enormous cost it was made, next to

Quebec, the strongest fortress in America. Its position was a commanding one. It guarded the first approaches to the St. Lawrence, the gateway of Canada. It served as a naval station from which the French could strike a sudden blow at Acadia, or the older English colonies; as a haven for French fishermen, who thronged the surrounding waters; and as a refuge for French privateers, who, even in time of peace, preyed on English fishing and trading vessels. It is not surprising, therefore, that the people of New England watched its growth with alarm, and used the first opportunity to attack it.



FIRE-PLACE IN A MONTREAL MANSION OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Canada.—Canada enjoyed quiet prosperity during this period. The population, which had increased from 2,000 in 1660 to 10,000 in 1680, reached 60,000 by the middle of the eighteenth century. At that time the city of Quebec contained 8,000 souls and Montreal 4,000. The fur-trade still remained the most profitable industry, but farming was growing in importance. In spite of Talon's early efforts, there were almost no manufactures before the eighteenth century. Afterwards, weaving, tanning and ship-building were carried on in a small way. Trade was greatly hampered by many restrictions and monopolies, and the prices of goods were usually very high. All trade with the

English colonies was forbidden, but could not be wholly prevented, especially in the region of the Great Lakes. One writer of the time tells us that the English traders

A HOUSE OF THE FRENCH PERIOD.

gave the Indians twice as much as the French for their furs and asked only half as much for their own wares.

Grain, lumber and fish were sent to France in small quantities, but the value of beaver skins was twice as much as that of all other exports together.

Acadia.—The British government retained Acadia, or Nova Scotia, as it must now be called, to please New England; for the colonists wished to be rid of a troublesome neighbour, and to control the valuable fisheries of the peninsula. For many years no attempt was made to bring out settlers, and British authority was represented only by a feeble garrison at Annapolis. A few English lived at Canso, then, as now, a great fishing centre.

The French Acadians remained in the country. Their settlements lay around the Bay of Fundy, where they

had farms of rich marsh land, won from the sea and protected by dykes

"That the hands of the farmers had raised with labour incessant."

They were a simple, contented folk who knew little about the outside world. The British levied no taxes on them, nor interfered in any way with their local affairs. In time they would no doubt have become loyal to their new rulers but for the influence of the French. The authorities at Quebec and Louisburg urged them to refuse to swear allegiance to the English king, saying that the country would soon be in French hands again. In 1730 the English governor persuaded some of them to take the oath, but only on the condition that they should be allowed to remain neutral in case of war. In the war about to begin they remained, for the most part, true to their promise.

AN ACADIAN WOMAN.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XII

1. **French forts built and fur-trade developed in the West.**
2. **French position in Cape Breton strengthened by foundation of Louisburg, 1720.**
3. **Growth of population and prosperity in Canada.**
4. **Acadians remain French in their sympathies, refusing to take the oath of allegiance to Britain.**

General Questions

1. What modern cities in North America owe their origin to French trading posts?
2. What was the importance of Louisburg?
3. Give an account of the Acadians.

CHAPTER XIII

THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, 1744-1748

Annapolis Besieged.—After thirty years of peace the colonies in America were again disturbed by a war between the mother countries in Europe. The French at Louisburg received the news first and resolved to take the English in Nova Scotia by surprise. A force, hastily collected, burned Canso and besieged Annapolis. The fortifications of the latter place were wretchedly weak. The garrison was small, but put on such a bold front that the French, who received less aid from the Acadians than was expected, retreated without making a serious attack.

Louisburg Taken, 1745.—The commerce of New England had already suffered much from Louisburg privateers, and the people were eager to fight. SHIRLEY, the governor of Massachusetts, persuaded the assembly to vote sufficient money to send a force of 4,000 men against Louisburg. PEPPERELL, a merchant of Boston, was placed in command. Officers and men alike were untrained in war, but they had courage, enthusiasm and shrewd common sense. At Canso the expedition was joined by an English fleet under ADMIRAL WARREN.

So well had the secret been kept, that the first news of the expedition received by the French was from its appearance before the fortress. Warren's ships bombarded the city, and prevented aid from reaching it by the sea. The army was poorly supplied with cannon, but early in the siege they captured a French battery

and turned its heavy guns on Louisburg. Many of the New England troops were skilled riflemen, and prevented the French from using their cannon with good effect. In seven weeks the provisions and ammunition of the garrison ran short, and the fortress surrendered. The news of its fall was received with wild joy in New England, and with equal dismay in France.

D'Anville's Failure.—The French resolved to retake Louisburg at any cost, and to punish the proud New Englanders. They prepared the finest expedition yet sent to America, but it proved the most unfortunate. Storm after storm scattered and destroyed the fleet, and

ANNAPOLIS ROYAL. *(From an old print.)*

only a few vessels reached Chebucto Harbour (afterwards Halifax). Pestilence carried off men by hundreds; D'Anville died, and his successor, overburdened with cares, killed himself. The force was now too weak to attack either Louisburg or Boston; and when the fleet sailed to make an attempt on Annapolis, it was so shattered by another storm that the few survivors were glad to return to France.

A land force which had been sent from Canada to aid D'Anville in Nova Scotia, remained at the isthmus of Chignecto. During the winter they marched around the head of Cobequid Bay to attack a party of Massachusetts

men stationed at Grand Pré to watch over the Acadians. Hidden by darkness and a blinding snow storm, the French took their foes completely by surprise and killed or captured the whole of them.

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—When peace was restored between the two countries by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, Cape Breton with Louisburg was restored to France. The people of New England were angry and disappointed at this surrender, for they had spent much blood and money in capturing the hated stronghold. To soothe their feelings, the British government refunded the expenses of their expedition. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle did not end the long-standing boundary disputes between the English and French colonies, but it provided that commissioners from each nation should be appointed to discuss the opposing claims and settle them, if possible.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XIII

1. **French capture Canso and attack Annapolis, 1744.**
2. **British capture Louisburg, 1745.**
3. **Failure of D'Anville's expedition, 1746.**
4. **British force captured at Grand Pré, 1747.**
5. **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.**

General Questions

1. What qualities were shown by the New Englanders in the expedition to Louisburg?
2. Describe the French plans for 1746, and show how they failed.
3. **Who were the following:—Shirley, Pepperell, D'Anville, Nicholson, Denonville, Marquette?**

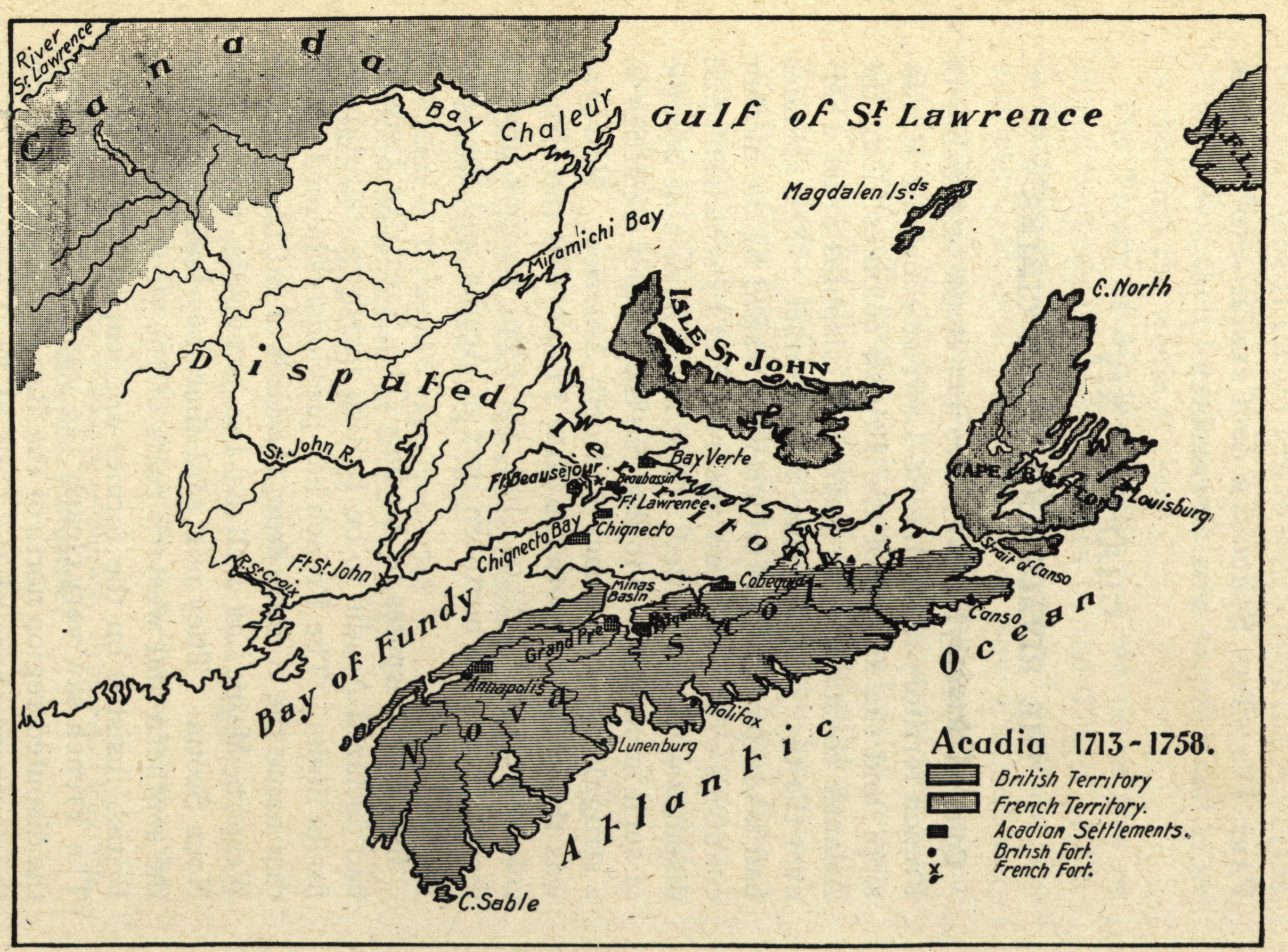
Part IV. The Struggle of French and English for Supremacy

CHAPTER XIV

THE RIVALS AND THEIR CLAIMS

Colonial Rivalry. — We have noted the extension of French territory along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and the spread of the British colonies along the Atlantic coast; and we have seen disputes arise wherever the two peoples came into contact. The colonies had taken part in wars which were waged by the mother countries over European quarrels, but by which colonial disputes were not settled. The latter have now become of such importance as to involve the mother countries in a struggle for supremacy in North America. Nowhere was the boundary between New France and the British colonies clearly defined, but the chief regions now in dispute were the northern part of Acadia and the Ohio valley.

Boundary Disputes in Acadia.—The Treaty of Utrecht had declared Acadia to be British territory, but did not fix its limits. The French had previously claimed under that name the country from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Western Maine, as well as the peninsula now called Nova Scotia. They now said that they had ceded only the southern and western parts of the peninsula. The British insisted on the former application of the name. The French saw very clearly the importance of holding the disputed region north of the Bay of Fundy and along the southern shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. If it


River St. Lawrence
Canada
Bay Chaleur
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Magdalen Isds
Miramichi Bay
C. North
ISLE St JOHN
Disputed Territory
St John R.
Bay Verte
Ft Beausejour
Beaubassin
Ft Lawrence
CAPE BRETON
Louisburg
Chignecto Bay
Chignecto
Strait of Canso
Ft St John
R. St Croix
Minas Basin
Cobequid
Canso
Bay of Fundy
Grand Pre
Annapolis
Halifax
Lunenburg
Atlantic Ocean
C. Sable
Acadia 1713 - 1758.
British Territory
French Territory.
Acadian Settlements.
British Fort.
French Fort.

were to fall into British hands, communication, at least in winter, between Canada and the islands of St. Jean and Cape Breton would be cut off, and French supremacy in the Gulf would be seriously threatened. The French, who hoped to regain some day the whole of Acadia, were much alarmed when the British government sent out 2,500 colonists under CORNWALLIS to form a great military and naval station at HALIFAX in 1749. LE LOUTRE, the missionary among the Micmac Indians, was very active in the interests of the French. Largely through his influence the Indians were very hostile to the English. They prowled around Halifax and cut off small parties of the colonists at every opportunity. Le Loutre, acting on instructions from Louisburg, warned the Acadians that the Micmacs would attack them, if they took the oath of allegiance on which Governor Cornwallis was now insisting. He persuaded many to leave their homes in the English territory south of the Bay of Fundy, and to settle in the disputed territory to the north, where they would be more under French influence. In this district the French had already built a strong fort, BEAUSÉJOUR, to command the isthmus of Chignecto, where there were large Acadian settlements. In 1750 a British force from Halifax established FORT LAWRENCE a few miles south of Beauséjour. The Indians and Acadians under Le Loutre annoyed them with petty attacks, and on one occasion an officer named Howe was treacherously shot when going to meet a flag of truce.

The Ohio Valley.—The governor of New York long before this time had protested against the occupation of the west by the French, and the Iroquois had fought to prevent the fur-trade of the region from falling into their hands. Nevertheless, the French, as we have seen, maintained and strengthened their hold, and they

now claimed that the whole Mississippi valley to the crests of the Appalachian mountains was theirs, by right of exploration and possession. The British maintained on the other hand that their territory was not limited by the mountains, but that each of their colonies owned the land west of its own settlements as far as the Mississippi at least. The key to the disputed territory was the valley of the Ohio. It extended far to the northeast, between the basin of the Great Lakes and the Appalachians, that is, between the British colonies and the lands acknowledged to belong to the French. Should the French gain it, they would confine the British to the narrow plain between the mountains and the Atlantic, and would enjoy undisputed possession of the whole interior. If the British secured the valley, they would have an open route to the great regions of the West, and could easily break the long slender line connecting Louisiana and Canada. The possession of the interior would decide, though neither yet realized it fully, whether the British or the French should be supreme in North America.

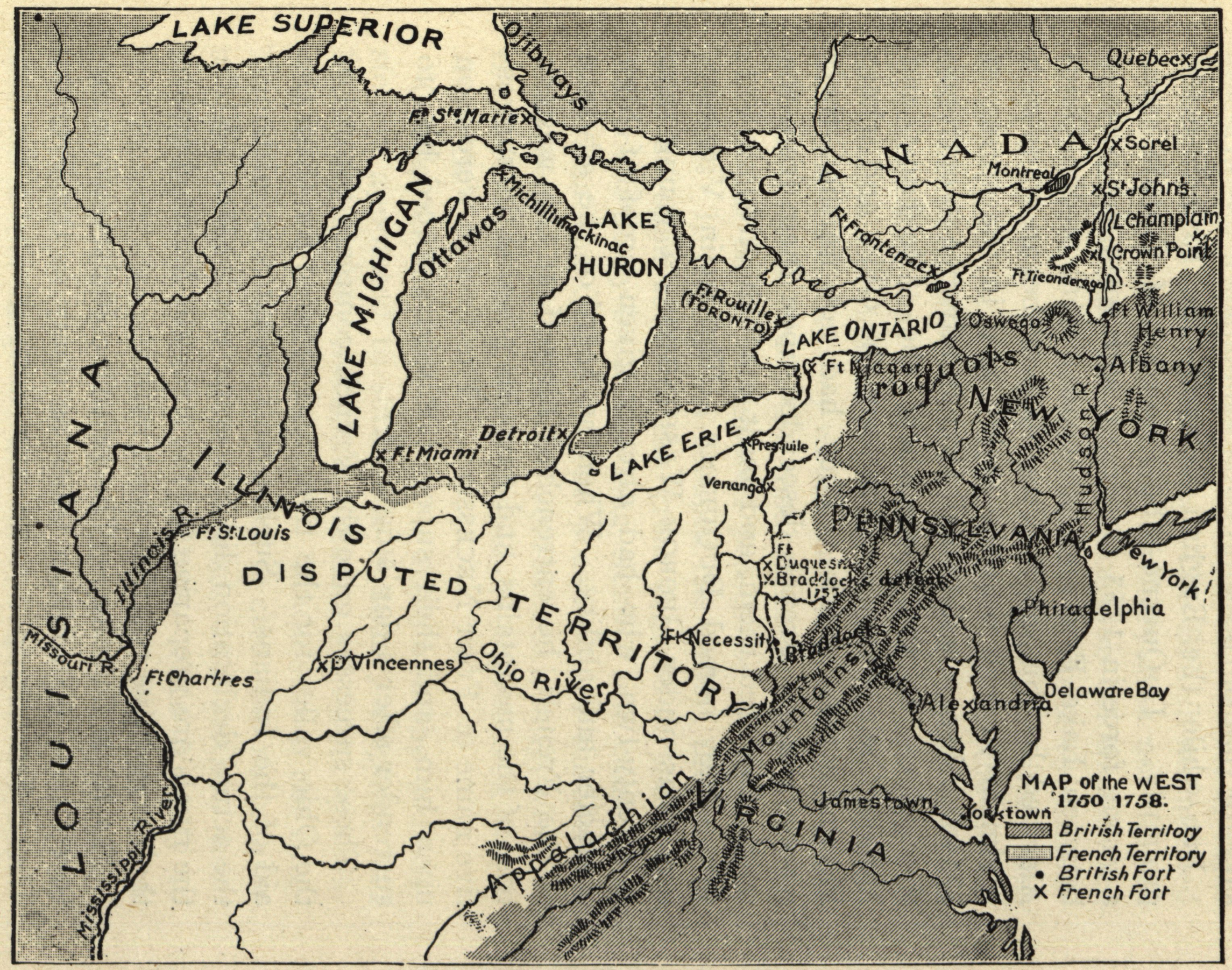
Conflict in the Ohio Valley. — Although the commissioners appointed to settle the boundary disputes had barely begun their work, the French took formal possession of the Ohio valley in 1749. Traders from the English colonies, however, continued to cross the mountains to barter with the tribes beyond, and settlers were beginning to follow. The Indians, while friendly to the French, found the goods of the English much cheaper and better. In the end they would probably follow their usual way and join the stronger side. The interest of the English, therefore, required the establishment of a strong post on the Ohio to command the passage to the west. The colonial governments,

however, were very slow in providing the money necessary for that purpose.

But while the English delayed, the French acted promptly. DuQuesne, the governor of Canada, sent a strong force in 1753 to occupy with forts the portage between Lake Erie and the head waters of the Ohio. Alarmed by this move, Virginia now began to raise a regiment to send into the valley, and in the spring of 1754 she dispatched a small force in advance to entrench themselves at the spot where the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers unite to form the Ohio, and where Pittsburg now stands. They had not finished their work when the French descended upon them from the north, captured them, and built a much stronger fort, which they named DuQuesne. The main Virginian force was under George Washington, a young man of twenty-two, who had already given proof of high character and ability. When he heard of the advance of the French, he entrenched himself at the western base of the mountains, and gave his position the suggestive name of Fort Necessity. The French were soon upon him, and their superior numbers forced him to surrender after a day's fighting.

These successes gave the French complete control of the Ohio valley for the time, and secured for them the aid of the Indians. Such events meant war, although the actual declaration did not come until 1756. While the rivals are preparing for the struggle, let us compare their respective positions in America.

The Rival Colonies. — The British colonists now numbered 1,200,000, fifteen times as many as the French. The difference in wealth was even greater; for the former were very self-reliant and enterprising, and gathered much property and money from their farming,


LAKE SUPERIOR
Ojibways
Fp Ste Marie
Quebec
CANADA
Sorel
Montreal
St Johns
Champlain
Crown Point
Ft Tieonderoga
Ft Frontenac
Michillimackinac
LAKE HURON
LAKE MICHIGAN
Ottawas
Ft Ruuille (TORONTO)
LAKE ONTARIO
Oswegos
Ft Niagara
Iroquois
Albany
NEW YORK
Hudson R.
Detroit
Ft Miami
LAKE ERIE
Presquile
Venango
PENNSYLVANIA
New York
Ft Duquesne
Braddocks defeat 1755
Ft Necessity
Braddock
Philadelphia
Delaware Bay
Alexandria
Mountains
Appalachian
Jamestown
Yorktown
VIRGINIA
LOUISIANA
ILLINOIS
Illinois R.
Ft St Louis
DISPUTED TERRITORY
Missouri R.
Ft Chartres
Vincennes
Ohio River
Mississippi River
MAP of the WEST
1750 1758.
British Territory
French Territory
British Fort
French Fort

fishing and trading. Many more things needful for the war could be procured in the British colonies than in Canada. Most of the supplies for the French armies were still brought across the Atlantic, and during the war much was captured by the British, who were stronger on the sea.

But if the Canadians were fewer and poorer than their rivals, they were more united. They were wholly under the control of their rulers. If the governor ordered them to march to the frontier, or to work on the fortifications, there was no hesitation or delay. Among the British, on the other hand, authority was "crumbled into little pieces." Each of the thirteen colonies governed itself in most matters, and in the past they had seldom worked together with a common purpose. The assemblies in all the colonies were jealous of the authority of the governor, who represented the Crown, and they were often very slow to carry out his wishes by voting money for the war. The greater promptness and activity of the French, therefore, won for them many successes, until the colonial governments learned by hard experience the dangers of disunion.

Most of the fighting, especially in the first years of the war, took place in the great belt of hills and forests which protected Canada from her enemy. This was a great advantage to the French, for they could command the services of a much larger number of *coureurs de bois* skilled in all the arts of forest warfare.

The Indians.—The French had always showed much kindness to the Indians, and gained great influence over them, especially through the efforts of the missionaries. The British, on the other hand, treated them with indifference and contempt. Most of the tribes, therefore, fought on the side of the Canadians. They were of

great use in bush-fighting, and especially in scouting, watching all the passes through the forest, and bringing speedy intelligence of every movement of the enemy. The Iroquois alone joined the English, but their strength had been greatly reduced by emigration and losses in war. Even they were divided; for French agents had won the favour of many, and the British did not receive much aid from them until the war was nearly over.

Defences. — The British frontier from Virginia to Maine lay for the most part exposed to the raids of French bushrangers and Indians. New York was partly

HARBOUR OF LOUISBURG. *(From an old print.)*

protected by the Iroquois territory and by OSWEGO, a fort built on Lake Ontario, some years before, to divert the western fur trade from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson.

Canada could be invaded by three routes, each presenting many obstacles. The way down Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence was defended by Niagara, Frontenac and other posts, and was rendered very dangerous, moreover, by many rapids. The pass through the mountains by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu

was guarded by forts at Crown Point, Ile aux Noix and afterwards at Ticonderoga; while the route from the sea up the St. Lawrence was barred by Louisburg and Quebec, the strongest fortresses in America. Most of the important events of the war were connected with one or another of these great waterways.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XIV

1. **Boundary disputes—**
   in Acadia.
   a. Rival claims to disputed territory.
   b. Importance of disputed territory—key to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
   c. Occupation of disputed territory leads to conflict.
   in Ohio Valley.
   a. Rival claims to disputed territory.
   b. Importance of disputed territory—key to Mississippi valley.
   c. Occupation of disputed territory leads to conflict.
2. **Comparison of rival colonies.**
   a. British advantage in numbers, wealth, self-reliance.
   b. French advantage in unity, skill in forest warfare, aid of Indians.
3. **Nature of frontiers.**
   a. Hills and forests a defence to French.
   b. Routes of attack.

General Questions

1. State the rival claims to northern Acadia, and show the importance of the region to the French.
2. What was the importance of Halifax? How did the French harass the British in Acadia?
3. Show the importance of the Ohio valley to the British and to the French.
4. Trace the steps of French occupation of the region.
5. Why did the Indians favour the French?
6. Show the importance of Duquesne, Oswego, Ticonderoga, Beauséjour.

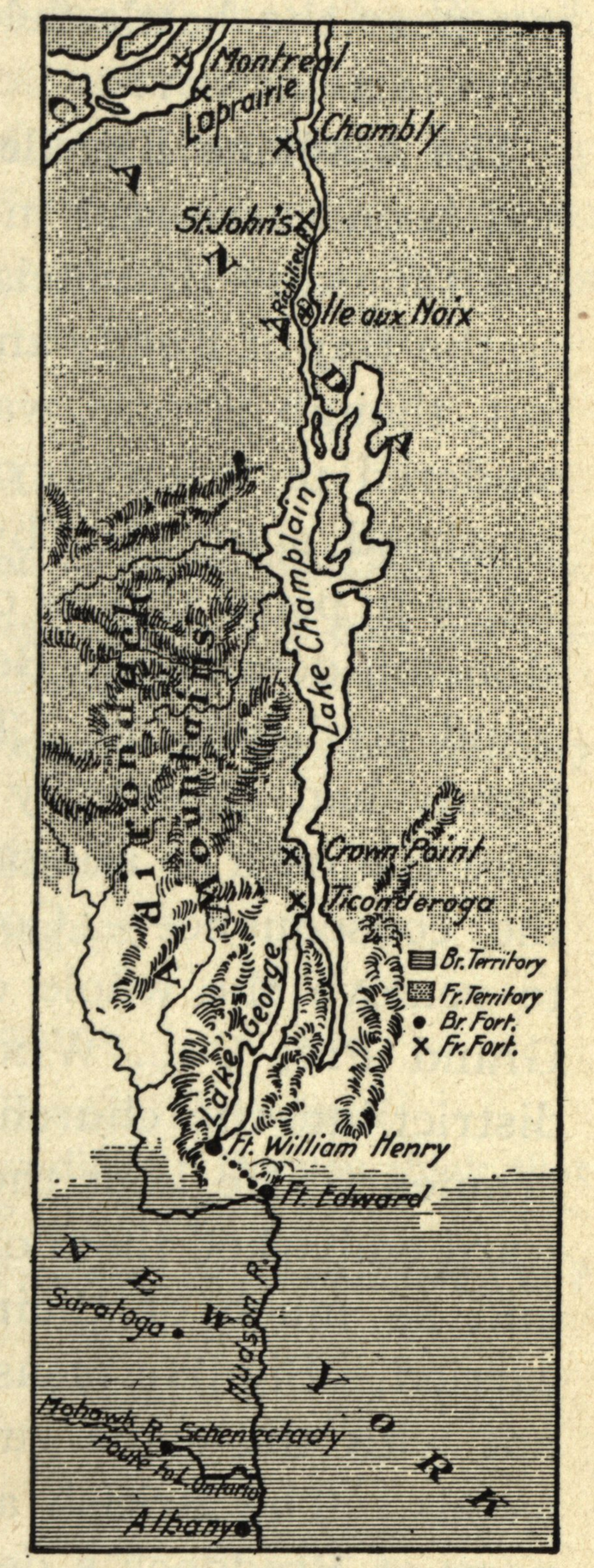
CHAPTER XV

THE BEGINNING OF THE GREAT STRUGGLE, 1755

British Plans for 1755.—Both France and Britain sent reinforcements to America early in the year. The British force was commanded by GENERAL BRADDOCK. He was an officer of experience and undoubted courage, but he was too proud and obstinate to take the advice of those who understood forest warfare better than himself. On his arrival he held a council of the colonial governors, and a plan for the campaign was agreed on. Braddock himself was to lead his regulars, with some companies of Virginian riflemen, to capture Fort Duquesne and drive the French from the Ohio valley. SHIRLEY, governor of Massachusetts, was to strike at Niagara. A colonial force raised by COL. JOHNSON in New York was directed to seize Crown Point and open the central route to Canada; while a fourth expedition under MONCTON was to take Fort Beauséjour, the key to the disputed territory in Acadia.

Braddock's Defeat.—Braddock's expedition was long delayed for lack of transport waggons. After their start, although they soon left their heavy baggage and many of their number behind, a month was consumed on the long rough way over the mountains and through the forest. When within a few miles of Fort Duquesne, they were surprised by a force of nine hundred French and Indians. The British troops were at once drawn up in close lines after European fashion. Their scarlet uniforms made a plain target for the enemy, who poured in a murderous fire from the shelter of rocks and trees. The British

could make no effective reply, for hardly an enemy was to be seen. In spite of the gallant efforts of Braddock, Washington and the other officers, the men huddled together in helpless confusion, and were shot down by hundreds. At last Braddock, mortally wounded, gave the order to retreat. The survivors broke into headlong flight, leaving the cannon, baggage, three-quarters of the officers and two-thirds of the men, on the field. The dying general, suffering terribly, was borne in a litter along with the flying army. "Who would have thought it!" he murmured. "We shall know better how to deal with them another time." In a few minutes he was no more.



THE CHAMPLAIN ROUTE BETWEEN NEW YORK AND CANADA.

Johnson at Lake George. — Colonel Johnson, the commander of the expedition against Crown Point, had no experience of war, but was shrewd and popular, and had much influence over the Iroquois, having married a sister of the famous Mohawk chief, Joseph Brant. He marched from Albany up the Hudson, and crossed to the head of Lake George. In the meantime, the French did not wait for attack at Crown Point, but moved up Lake Champlain against the British. In their attack on Johnson's camp at Lake George, however, they were driven back with

severe loss, their leader, DIESKAU, being wounded and captured. Johnson did not follow up his victory and attack Crown Point, but contented himself with building near the battle-field a strong fort which he called WILLIAM HENRY.

The Acadians Expelled.—In the meantime, Moncton had been successful in Acadia. Leaving Boston with two thousand provincials and a few regulars, he sailed up the Bay of Fundy and laid siege to Beauséjour. The fort, though strong, was feebly defended, and was surrendered in a few days. The Acadians of the neighbourhood, spurred on by the priest, Le Loutre, had been active in petty attacks on the British from without, and Moncton detained in Beauséjour as many of them as he could lay hands on. Those living south of the Bay of Fundy had repeatedly refused during the summer to take the oath of allegiance, in spite of warnings as to the consequence. Governor Lawrence now resolved to remove the whole of them from the country. At Grand Pré, COL. WINSLOW gathered the men of the district into the church to hear the decision of the government. He kept them prisoners, and shortly afterward embarked them on board ships, with their families and as much of their household goods as could be carried. Similar measures were taken elsewhere, but not with the same success, for many escaped to the woods. The British authorities, much alarmed at the news of Braddock's defeat, did not wish to strengthen the French, by sending the Acadians to Canada or Cape Breton, but scattered the unfortunate exiles along the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts to Georgia. Most of them made their way to Louisiana or Canada, and some, in time, back to their native land. To-day their descendants form a considerable part of the population

of eastern New Brunswick, and of some counties of Nova Scotia.

Shirley's Failure.—When Shirley's expedition against Niagara reached Oswego, it was found that the French had so strengthened their forces around Lake Ontario, that further advance was out of the question. Shirley decided to leave a strong garrison at Oswego, and to return with the rest of his force to Albany. With his retreat the campaign closed for the year.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XV

1. **The defeat of Braddock's expedition to regain the Ohio Valley.**
2. **Johnson defeats the French at Lake George, but does not dislodge the French from Lake Champlain.**
3. **Moncton captures Beauséjour, the key to the disputed territory in Acadia.**
4. **The Acadians expelled from Nova Scotia.**
5. **Shirley's expedition fails to reach Niagara.**

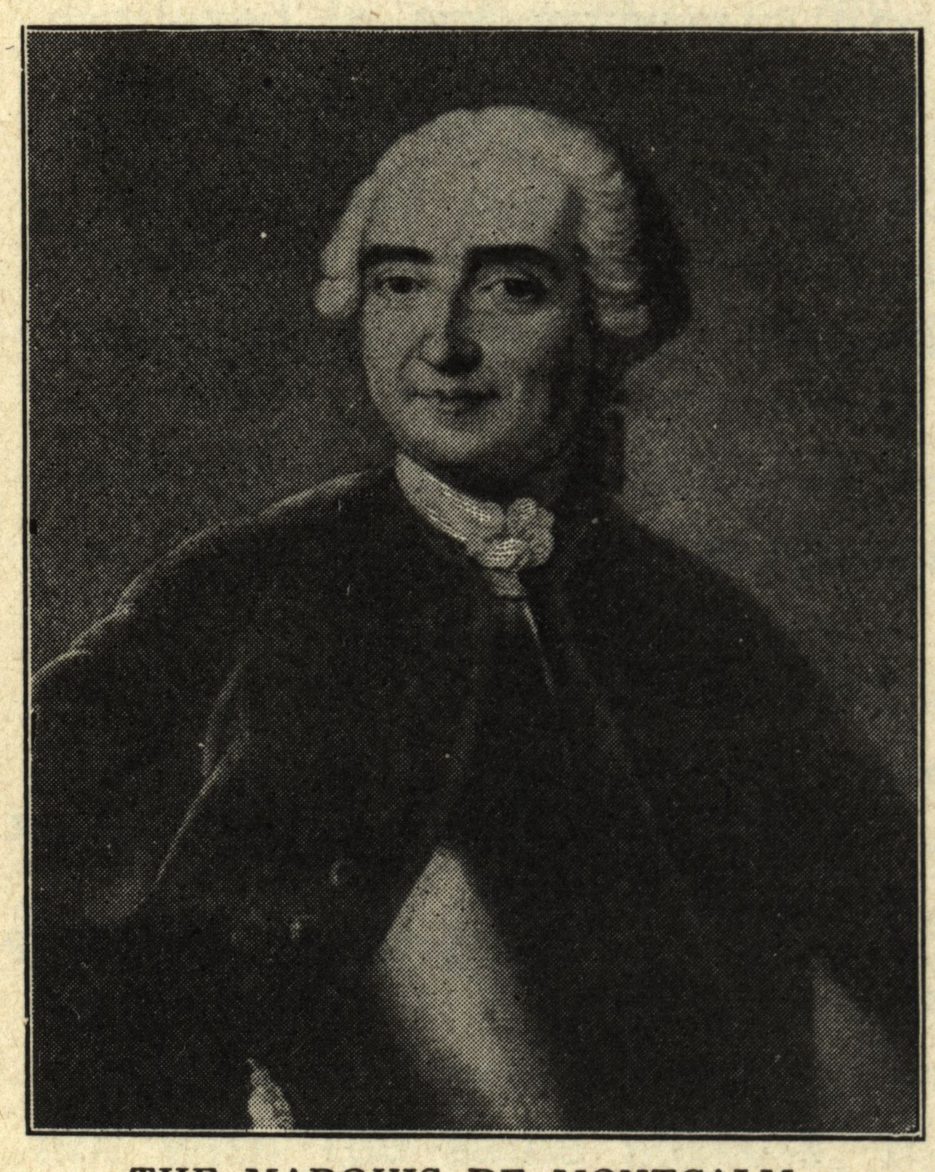
General Questions

1. **What reasons can you give for Braddock's defeat?**
2. **Write a composition on the Acadians. Do you think that their expulsion was justifiable?**
3. **On which side did the balance of success in this campaign lie?**

CHAPTER XVI

TWO YEARS OF FRENCH SUCCESS

The Seven Years' War, 1756.—After the colonies in America had been fighting for a year, a great conflict began in Europe, usually called the Seven Years' War. Britain came to the aid of Frederick the Great of Prussia when France joined Austria, Russia and other countries in an attempt to crush him. France and Britain were opponents in India also, so that this mighty struggle for supremacy extended to three continents.



THE MARQUIS DE MONTCALM.

Montcalm.—In May the Marquis de Montcalm arrived at Quebec to take Dieskau's place. For four years he led the French forces in Canada and fought with noble courage and devotion to save her from her fall. With him came LÉVIS and a number of other skilful officers, but few soldiers; for the king could not spare them from the war in Europe. The regular troops in Canada now numbered six thousand and, with the militia and Indians, gave Montcalm a force large enough to attack the British with success.

Oswego taken.—On the British side, affairs were in a bad way. The home government was weak and incapable, and chose officers on account of their social rank and family influence rather than for their merit: LOUDEN, the new commander-in-chief, was no match for Montcalm. The colonial governments had not yet learned to work together, and everywhere there were confusion and delay. Montcalm took prompt advantage of this state of things and made a sudden pounce on Oswego. The position was an important one, for from it the British carried on a profitable fur-trade in the lake region, and could threaten the French line of communications with the West. There was a strong garrison, but the fort itself was so wretchedly weak that the French guns soon compelled it to surrender. The French, relieved of anxiety for the West by this success, strengthened their forces on Lake Champlain. In addition to Crown Point they had now a new fort, TICONDEROGA, at the outlet of Lake George. Although Louden had ten thousand men at the other end of the lake, he thought the French position too strong to attack, and remained inactive to the end of the season.

BRITISH AND FRENCH SOLDIERS OF THE TIME.

Fort William Henry falls, 1757.—When spring came, Louden drew off most of the troops guarding the frontiers, to take part in an expedition which he was planning against Louisburg. But the usual delays occurred, and he got no further than Halifax. Montcalm seized the opportunity to strike at Fort William Henry. He gathered over seven thousand men, including sixteen hundred Indians, at Ticonderoga and moved rapidly up Lake George. In a few days the British were forced to surrender. The garrison were allowed to march out with their arms, but with no ammunition. They had hardly started, when the Indians, maddened with rum and eager for scalps, fell upon them, tomahawked many and carried off more in spite of the efforts of Montcalm to save them. This unfortunate affair caused intense anger throughout the British colonies, and the French were severely blamed for not providing a proper guard for the defenceless prisoners. Many of the captives were afterwards purchased from the Indians by the French and set free. Montcalm quickly destroyed Fort William Henry and returned in triumph to Ticonderoga.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XVI

1. **The Campaign of 1756.**
   - *a.* Montcalm arrives in Canada to command the French forces.
   - *b.* He captures Oswego and thus shuts the British out from the Great Lakes.
2. **The Campaign of 1757.**
   - *a.* Louden collects the British forces for an attack on Louisburg.
   - *b.* Montcalm captures Fort William Henry.

General Questions

1. What reasons can you give for the French successes of 1756 and 1757?
2. What well-known books of fiction refer to the events happening at this time around Lake Champlain?

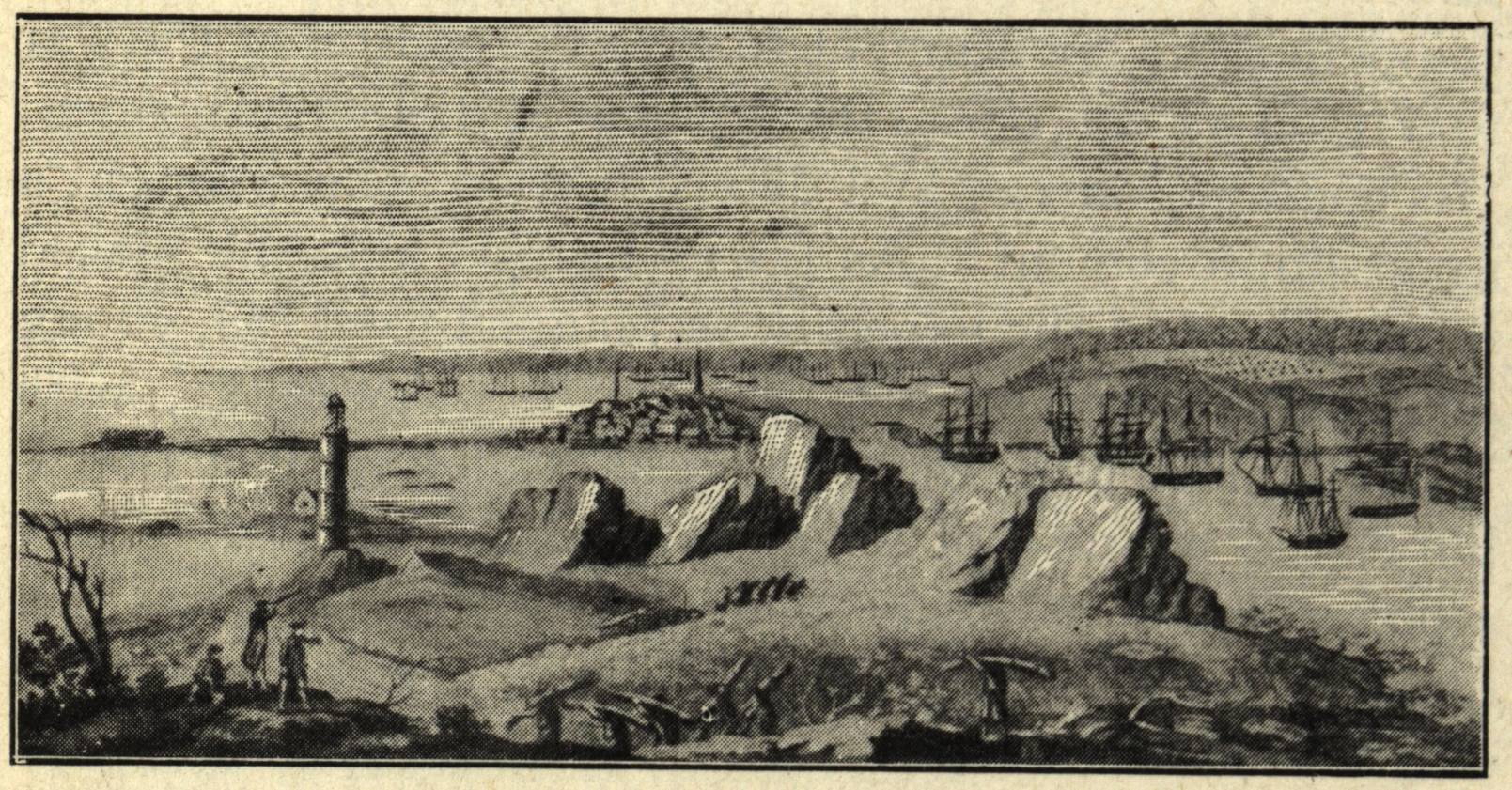
CHAPTER XVII

THE TURN OF THE TIDE

Pitt and His Plans.—The British people were very angry at the disasters of the past three years, and they saw no hope of better success, unless there were stronger and wiser men in the council and in the field. They compelled the government to give the control of the war to WILLIAM PITT, one of the greatest of British statesmen. His courage, energy and determination soon wrought a great improvement. As far as he was able, he placed in command of the expeditions planned for 1758, young and active men of his own spirit. AMHERST, with WOLFE under him, was chosen as leader against Louisburg, the capture of which was necessary before any attempt could be made against Quebec. FORBES was to make an effort to take Duquesne and wipe out the disgrace of Braddock's failure. ABERCROMBIE, made commander-in-chief in spite of Pitt's wishes, took charge of the expedition against Ticonderoga, where he was soon to prove his unfitness for any command.

Louisburg Captured.—The effects of Pitt's energy were seen everywhere. Before the end of winter British fleets sailed to blockade French ports, where aid was being prepared for Louisburg and Canada, and by the first of June Admiral Boscawen and General Amherst were at Louisburg with all their forces. Wolfe led the advance party through the surf, over the low, craggy cliffs, and captured the French batteries that guarded the landing-places. In a short time the army was on shore. The guns were mounted and the siege began. Louisburg

was well provisioned and garrisoned. In the harbour was a strong fleet, but so severe was the fire directed upon them that many of the vessels were burned. After Wolfe had captured the batteries that guarded the mouth of the harbour, the French sank four of their ships at the entrance to keep out the British fleet; but a party of sailors, protected by the darkness, rowed in, captured one of the two remaining vessels and burned the other. As the besiegers' trenches



LOUISBURG IN 1758. *(From an old print.)*

approached the walls of the fortress, the effects of the bombardment became more marked; the ramparts crumbled, and, one by one, the French guns were silenced. On the twenty-sixth of July Drucour, the commander, gave up the city, and with it the islands of Cape Breton and St. John. More than five thousand soldiers and sailors were taken prisoners. The people of the town were sent to France. After taking possession of small French settlements on the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Wolfe, whose health was poor, returned to England, while Amherst sailed with a strong force to join Abercrombie.

French Victory at Ticonderoga.—That officer, "infirm in body and mind," had already made his attack on Ticonderoga and had failed. Under him was LORD HOWE, on whom Pitt depended for success, and while he lived all went well. But he was killed in a skirmish with a scouting party at the foot of Lake George, and at his death "the soul of Abercrombie's army seemed to expire." In front of the fort Montcalm had built a breastwork of logs and earth, while the ground beyond was strewn with tree tops with their branches sharpened to a point and turned outwards. These lines formed a perfect defence against musketry, but could easily have been swept with cannon mounted on the neighbouring heights. Although Abercrombie was well supplied with artillery, he did not use it, but ordered a bayonet charge. The barrier proved impassable; and although the men fought with the utmost stubbornness, attacking again and again, they were forced to retire at nightfall with a loss of nearly two thousand. There were thirteen thousand men left; but, instead of attacking next day under cover of artillery fire, Abercrombie retreated in a panic to Fort William Henry.

SIR JEFFREY AMHERST.

The Fall of Frontenac and Duquesne.—The French victory at Ticonderoga was followed by severe losses farther west. In August, a British force under BRADSTREET crossed Lake Ontario and surprised Fort Frontenac. Its garrison, too small to resist, surrendered at once. A number of vessels and vast quantities of supplies, intended for the Indians and the western forts, were also captured. Bradstreet destroyed the fort and everything that he could not carry away, and returned to Albany.

In the meantime Forbes and Washington were slowly toiling on their way over the mountains to Fort Duquesne. Before they reached it, the Indian allies of the French, not having received the usual gifts and supplies, went home in disgust. Without them, the French felt too weak to resist attack and retreated towards Lake Erie, leaving the fort in ashes. It was rebuilt by the British and renamed FORT PITT, afterwards Pittsburg, from the great minister. This important success established British supremacy on the Ohio.

The Condition of Canada.—Throughout the year the condition of Canada grew more and more alarming. As most of the men were compelled to serve in the army, the fields were badly tilled and the harvests were scanty. Trade was stopped, British vessels cut off supplies from France, and the country was threatened with famine. Flour cost two hundred francs a barrel, and in Montreal people were compelled to eat horse-flesh.

To make matters worse, BIGOT, the intendant, and most of the other officials of the colony had leagued together to enrich themselves at the expense of the people and king. While there is no proof that Vaudreuil, the governor, shared in the prevailing corruption, he apparently did nothing to check it. Supplies, sent for

the use of the troops, were reported lost at sea or taken by the British, and then sold to the king at two or three times the original price. Bigot compelled the farmers to give him their wheat at a very low rate, and when famine threatened he resold it at an enormous profit. It is a satisfaction to know that, when the intendant and his fellow-thieves returned to France after the fall of the colony which they had helped to ruin, they were put on trial, punished and compelled to return a part, at least, of their ill-gotten gains.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XVII

1. **William Pitt becomes Minister of War in the British Government.**
2. **Amherst and Wolfe capture Louisburg.**
3. **Abercrombie defeated in attempt to take Ticonderoga.**
4. **Bradstreet takes Fort Frontenac.**
5. **The French abandon Fort Duquesne on approach of force under Forbes and Washington.**

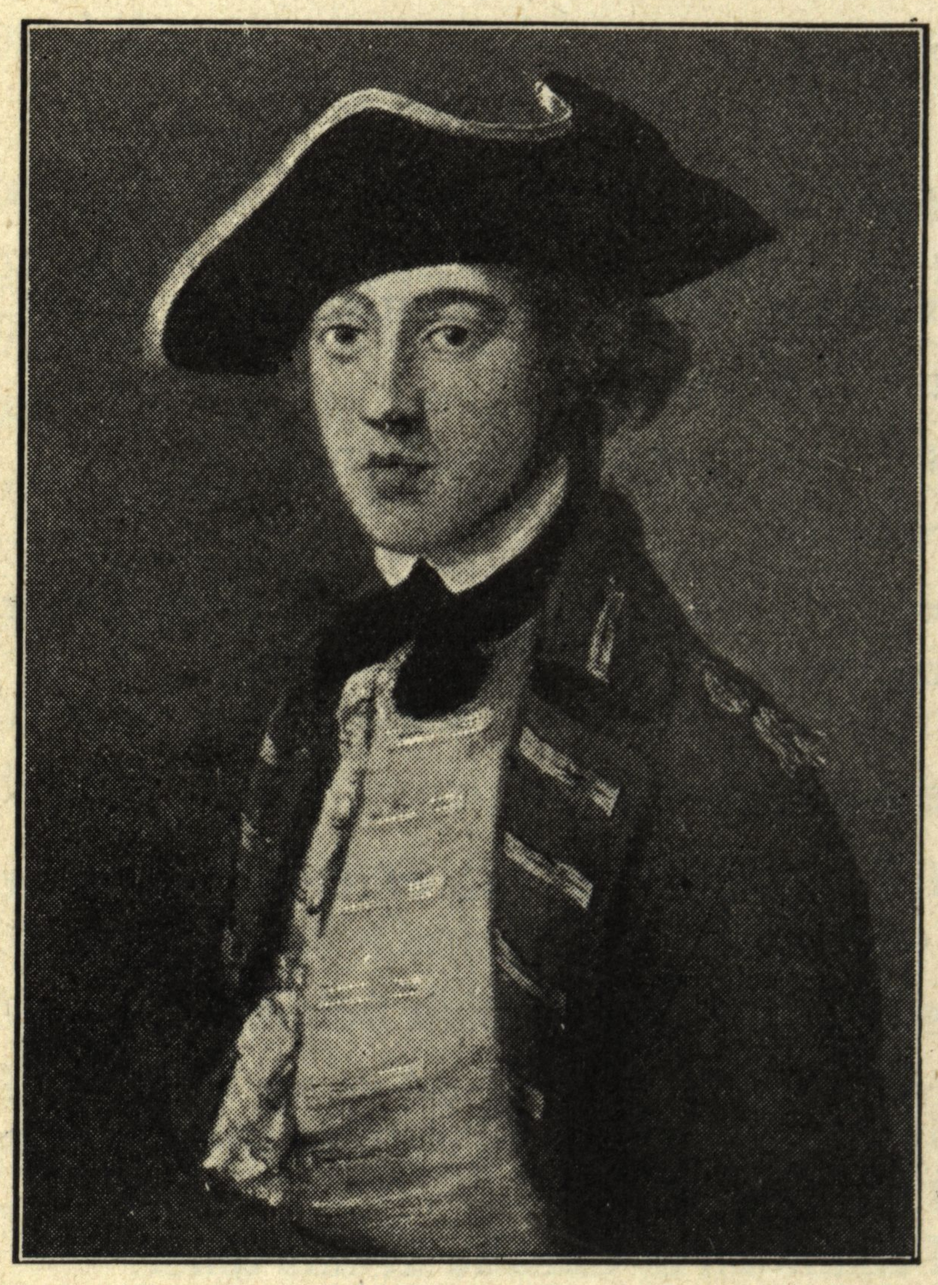
GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What changes did Pitt make in the conduct of the war? What was the result?
2. What reasons can you give for the British failure at Ticonderoga?
3. What routes for the invasion of Canada were opened by the British successes of this year?
4. Describe the internal condition of Canada at this time.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE FALL OF NEW FRANCE

Wolfe.—The capture of Louisburg, Frontenac and Duquesne in the previous campaign, prepared the way for an attack on the heart of Canada. Amherst, now commander-in-chief, was to advance by the Champlain route to Montreal, while Wolfe, whose services at the siege of Louisburg were noted by the keen eye of Pitt, was chosen to lead the grand attack on Quebec itself. He was now in his thirty-third year and had served in the army from the age of fifteen. His long, lank, awkward figure and somewhat uninteresting face showed little of the dauntless courage and fiery spirit of the man. Although his body was frail and often racked with intense pain, he never spared himself in the performance of duty, however difficult or dangerous.



JAMES WOLFE.

Wolfe reached Quebec at the end of June with an army of eight thousand six hundred picked men and

a fleet of seventy-six warships and transports under ADMIRAL SAUNDERS. The troops were landed on the upper end of the Island of Orleans and here Wolfe at first made his headquarters. As the commander gazed around him, he realized the difficulty of the task before him.

The Difficulty of his Task.—Quebec, perched on its lofty rock studded with batteries, could not be attacked from the front. The approaches on either side were

QUEBEC IN 1759.

almost equally difficult. Above the city, steep cliffs everywhere lined the north shore of the St. Lawrence, and the points at which they could be scaled were strongly guarded. To the eastward the banks were more accessible, but were everywhere fortified with earthworks and batteries. Here Montcalm took his stand with an army of fourteen thousand men, his camp extending from the St. Charles river to the Montmorency.

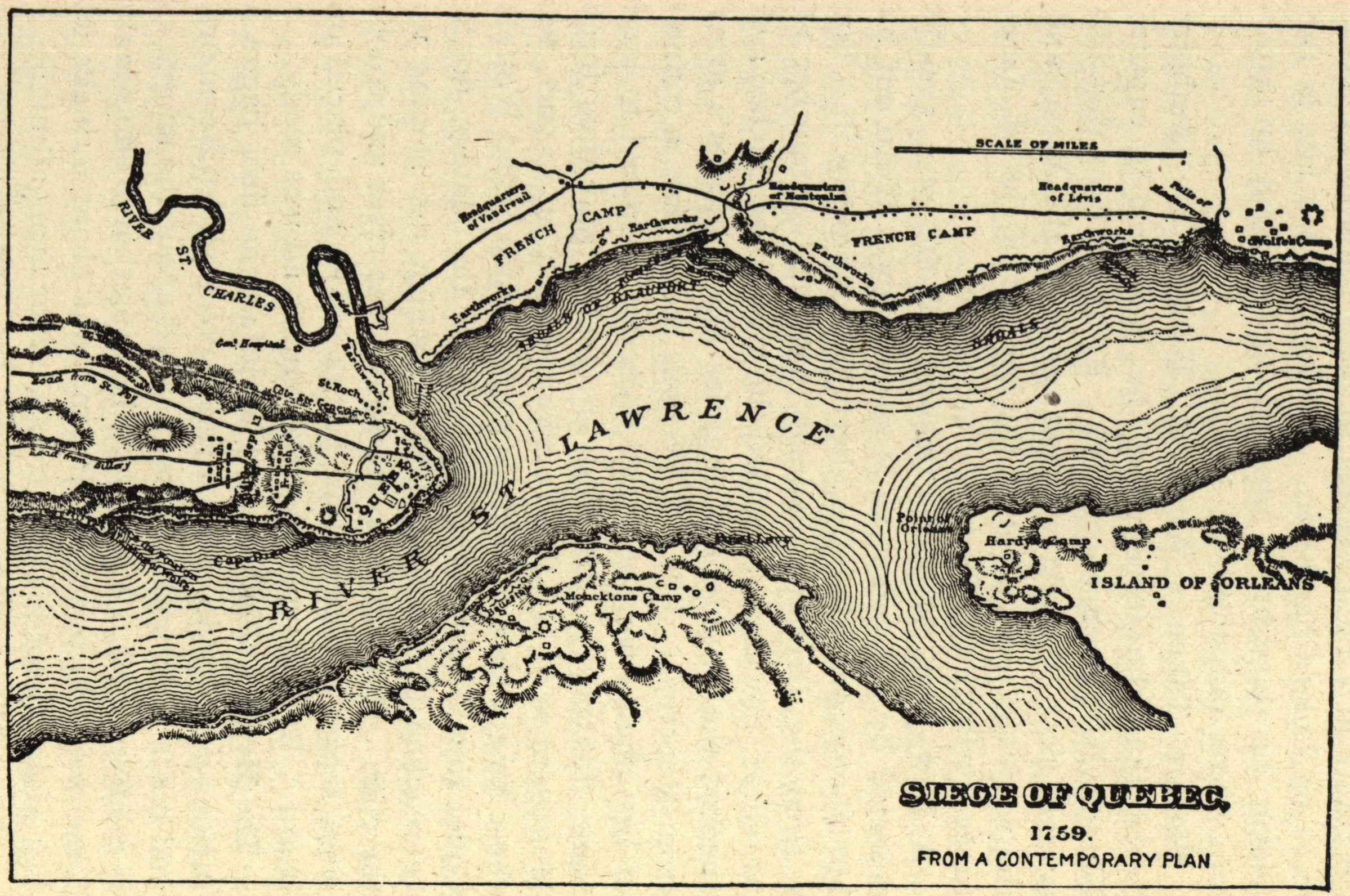
The French general trusted to time and the strength of his position, and remained on the defensive throughout the siege. Wolfe, on the other hand, wished to

bring on a general engagement, knowing that his opponent's troops, the majority of whom were militia, were no match for his own seasoned veterans in open fight.

First Attempts.—Shortly after his arrival, Wolfe sent a strong force under Moncton to occupy Point Lévis and bombard Quebec from across the river. The British guns soon did great damage to the houses of the city, but did not hasten its capture. Wolfe himself, with another force, took up a position on the north shore of the St. Lawrence east of the Montmorency, in the hope of reaching the rear of the French army, but found the gorge of the latter stream too strong a barrier.

On the last day of July he resolved to attack Montcalm in his entrenchments, a little to the west of the mouth of the MONTMORENCY. At this point the flats were bared at low tide for some distance from the cliff. The first detachment to land from the boats rushed across this space without waiting for orders or for the arrival of the main force under Wolfe, and seized a redoubt near the foot of the hill. Exposed now to a tremendous fire from the French above, they started to scale the cliff; but a thunderstorm, bursting just at this moment, quickly made the slippery slopes impassable. Wolfe saw that success would be too costly, and withdrew his whole force.

Amherst on Lake Champlain.—In the meantime Amherst was slowly making his way towards Canada by way of Lake Champlain. The French forces were too weak to resist, and abandoned Ticonderoga and Crown Point on his approach. A further advance would have helped Wolfe by compelling the French to withdraw some of their troops from Quebec for the defence of Montreal, but Amherst waited until he had repaired the



SIEGE OF QUEBEC,

1759.

FROM A CONTEMPORARY PLAN

forts and had built vessels to meet the French naval force on Lake Champlain. It was then too late in the season, he thought, to proceed, and he sent his army into winter quarters.

Niagara Taken.—While at Ticonderoga, Amherst heard that the force which he had sent to capture Niagara had been successful. By the fall of this important post, Canada was cut off from the West, and the way was now open for the descent of the St. Lawrence by British forces.

A New Plan to Take Quebec.—Wolfe was greatly dejected by his defeat at Montmorency. Worn out by his labours and anxieties, he fell dangerously ill. For a time the British remained inactive. A number of warships, however, ascended the river past Quebec and checked the shipment of supplies for Montcalm's army from Montreal. While Wolfe was recovering, a council of his officers was held and someone proposed to land some distance to the west of Quebec and thus force Montcalm to fight. Wolfe adopted the plan in part, but chose for the daring venture a spot (since called Wolfe's Cove) much nearer the city. Here the plateau might be reached by a slight pathway which ran sloping up the cliff. More ships were sent up the river and troops were secretly drawn from points below and placed on board. By the twelfth of September all was ready.

The Heights Climbed.—At nightfall the fleet began a furious cannonade of the French positions at Beauport, and boats filled with sailors hovered about the shores as if ready to land. Montcalm, thinking that Wolfe's main force was still opposite him and was about to make its last attack, kept his own troops under arms all night.

Meanwhile, fortune favoured the British above. As Wolfe's boats dropped silently down the stream in the

darkness, a French-speaking officer on board satisfied the sentinels on shore by saying that they were provision boats which, as deserters told Wolfe, the French were expecting that night. At the landing place all was silent. Led by twenty-four volunteers, the advance party stealthily made their way up the precipice and scattered the sleeping guard at the top. Montcalm, although deceived by Wolfe's tactics as to the real point of attack, had ordered one of his regiments to take a position on the Plains of Abraham for the defence of any threatened point above the city. It had, on the contrary, encamped for the night across the St. Charles, so that Wolfe was able to bring up his army of four thousand five hundred men in detachments and place them in battle array without opposition.

The Battle of the Plains.—No message of Wolfe's successful move reached Montcalm; but, as he rode westward in the early morning towards the St. Charles he saw the red lines of the British on the plains beyond. He hastened on to Quebec, leaving orders that the troops from Beauport should follow at all speed. It is said that they were detained by Vaudreuil, who seldom worked in harmony with Montcalm and who feared an attack at that point. The governor of the city, too, refused Montcalm men and guns on the plea that he needed them for his own defence. Nevertheless, a force of nearly five thousand men was gathered in front of the city by ten o'clock. Montcalm feared to wait for further aid lest the British should be reinforced.

The French advanced, firing and shouting, their lines being thrown into disorder by the Canadians, who fell upon the ground to reload. Wolfe ordered his men to stand silent until the enemy were within forty paces. Then at the word of command their muskets rang out

154612.

THE DEATH OF WOLFE.

as one piece, and then again. When the smoke lifted the French column was seen to be broken and the ground strewn with dead and dying. Wolfe charged at the head of his men. He had been already wounded twice, and now a third shot passed through his breast and brought him to the ground. As he was carried to the rear someone cried, "They run, they run!" "Who run?" feebly demanded Wolfe. "The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere!" "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace!" returned the dying hero, and in a few moments he quietly breathed his last.

The French army was in headlong flight. Montcalm, striving to rally his men, was mortally wounded, and died next morning within the city walls. Vaudreuil assumed command in the absence of Lévis, and, although his forces greatly outnumbered the British, retreated rapidly up the St. Lawrence.

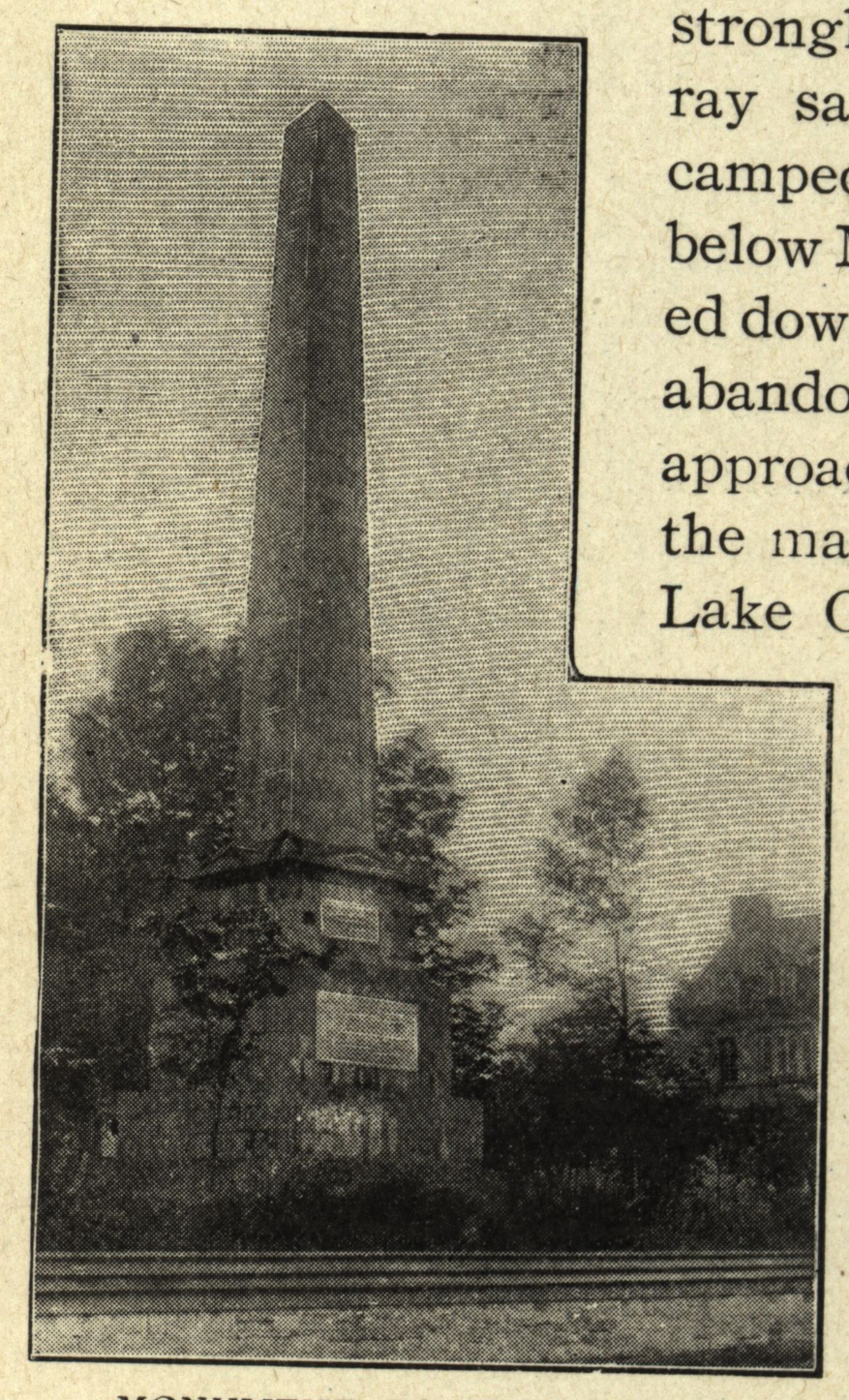
Thus left to its fate, Quebec surrendered to the British on the eighteenth of September. Shortly after, the fleet sailed for England, having on board the body of the dead conqueror. GENERAL MURRAY was left with a strong garrison to hold the city during the winter.

Attempt to Regain Quebec.—The British troops suffered severely from cold and sickness. When spring came, Murray had only three thousand men fit for active duty. Lévis and Vaudreuil resolved to attack him before aid could arrive from England.

Leaving Montreal, they moved rapidly down the river, and at the end of April appeared before Quebec with more than eight thousand men. Murray rashly marched out to meet them, expecting to gain as complete a victory as Wolfe's. The fight took place near the village of STE. FOYE, a little to the west of the former battlefield. The Canadians, however, as well as the regulars, fought

with great courage and the British were driven back into Quebec with heavy loss of men and guns. For nearly three weeks the French besieged the city, but on the arrival of the British fleet they retreated towards Montreal.

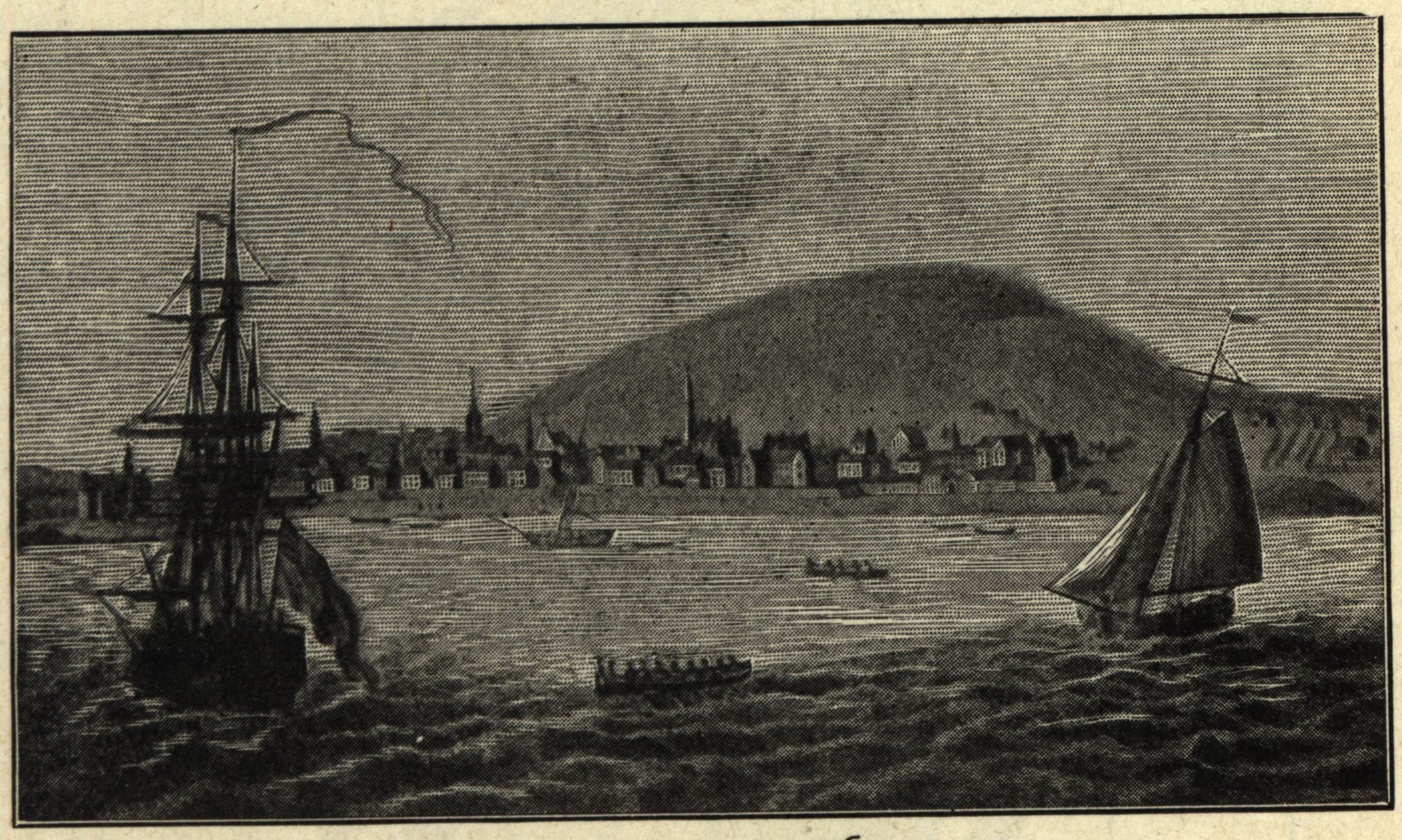
Movements against Montreal.—With the return of summer, Amherst moved his forces against the last stronghold of the French. Murray sailed up the river and encamped on an island a few miles below Montreal. Haviland marched down the Richelieu, the French abandoning fort after fort at his approach. Amherst himself, with the main army, took the route of Lake Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence, so as to cut off a possible French retreat to the West. He descended the river, losing eighty-four men by drowning in the passage of the Cedars and Cascades Rapids, and landed at Lachine on the sixth of September. When the other forces joined him in front of Montreal, Amherst had seventeen thousand men under his command.



MONUMENT TO WOLFE AND MONTCALM.

Montreal and Canada Surrendered, 1760.—The Canadians had been greatly discouraged by the failure to retake Quebec, and most of them deserted to their homes during the summer. There now remained at Montreal only two thousand four hundred regulars, a force

altogether too small to oppose the army of the enemy. When Vaudreuil asked for terms, Amherst insisted on the unconditional surrender of the city and of all Canada. The French leaders were compelled to submit. It was provided that the officers and soldiers of the army should be sent to France in British vessels, on condition that they should not fight again in the present war; that the people of Canada should enjoy



MONTREAL IN 1760.

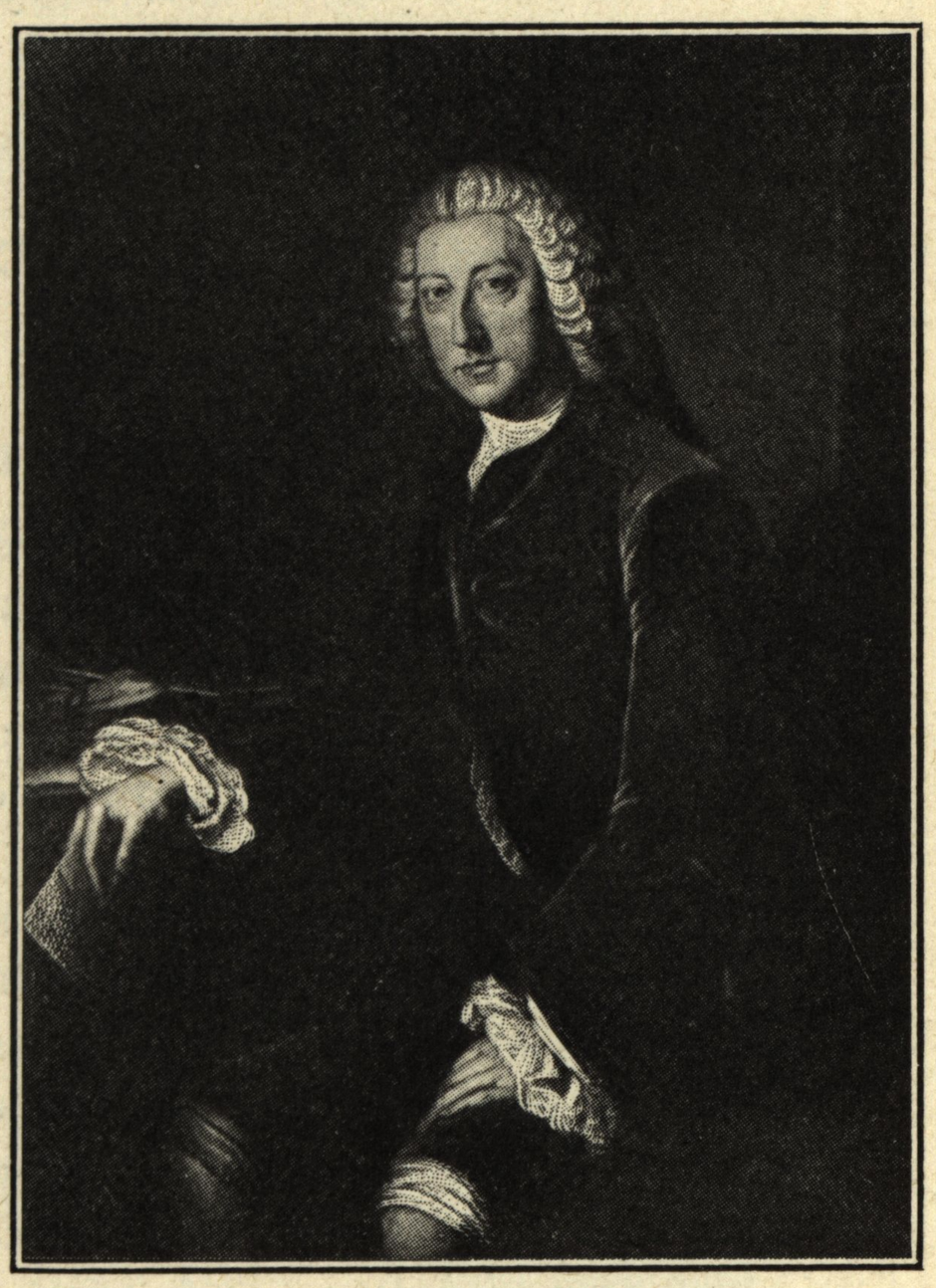
the privileges of British subjects, and that there should be no interference with their property and their religion. A few of the seigneurs and merchants returned to France; but the vast majority of the people, glad that the war with its hardships was over at last, resumed their quiet life under the new rulers. Until the treaty of peace, the affairs of the country were left in the hands of military officers, General Murray being the first governor.

The Treaty of Paris, 1763.—Elsewhere the struggle continued. Spain joined France in a last effort to

overthrow the power of their rival, but both met with crushing defeats and losses. France, worn out by the long contest, sought peace, and in 1763 the Treaty of Paris was signed. France gave up all claim to CANADA,

CAPE BRETON, ST. JOHN'S ISLAND and all the territory between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi. Amherst's terms to the Canadians were confirmed. Spain ceded Florida to Britain, while France rewarded her ally with the vast territory of Louisiana.

This treaty closed the mighty struggle between France and Britain for supremacy in North America. The heroic efforts of Champlain, of Frontenac and La Salle, and of Montcalm, to establish and maintain a French empire on that continent had ended in failure. The flag of France disappeared from the mainland, and she retained only the two tiny islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, off the south coast of Newfoundland, as fishing stations. Britain, her victorious rival, now held half the continent. In the West Indies and India also, she had added largely to her possessions. She had gained the first place among the world's colonial and naval powers. To this glorious result three men largely contributed—PITT in England, WOLFE in Canada and CLIVE in India.



WILLIAM PITT.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XVIII

1. **Wolfe's expedition against Quebec, 1759.**
   - *a.* Moncton bombards Quebec from Point Lévis.
   - *b.* Wolfe repulsed in attack on French lines at Montmorency.
   - *c.* British forces transferred to river above Quebec.
   - *d.* Wolfe climbs the cliffs and defeats the French on the Plains of Abraham, Sept. 13th.
   - *e.* Quebec surrendered to British, Sept. 18th.

2 Amherst opens central route to Canada by capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

3. Niagara captured by British.

4. Lévis defeats Murray at Ste. Foye, April, 1760, and besieges Quebec until arrival of British fleet.

5. Three British armies under Amherst, Murray and Haviland unite before Montreal.

6. Vaudreuil surrenders Montreal and Canada, September, 1760.

7. The Treaty of Paris, 1763.

General Questions

1. What advantages had the French in the struggle around Quebec? What advantages had the British?
2. What qualities did Wolfe show during his career in America?
3. Write a composition on the siege of Quebec.
4. Show how carelessness and lack of vigilance proved costly to the French.
5. In what battles and sieges were the British victorious during this war? What successes did the French win?
6. Name the most notable leaders on each side.
7. Give the terms of Treaty of Paris. Name the possessions of Britain, France and Spain in North America after this treaty.
8. What causes contributed to the failure of the French in North America?

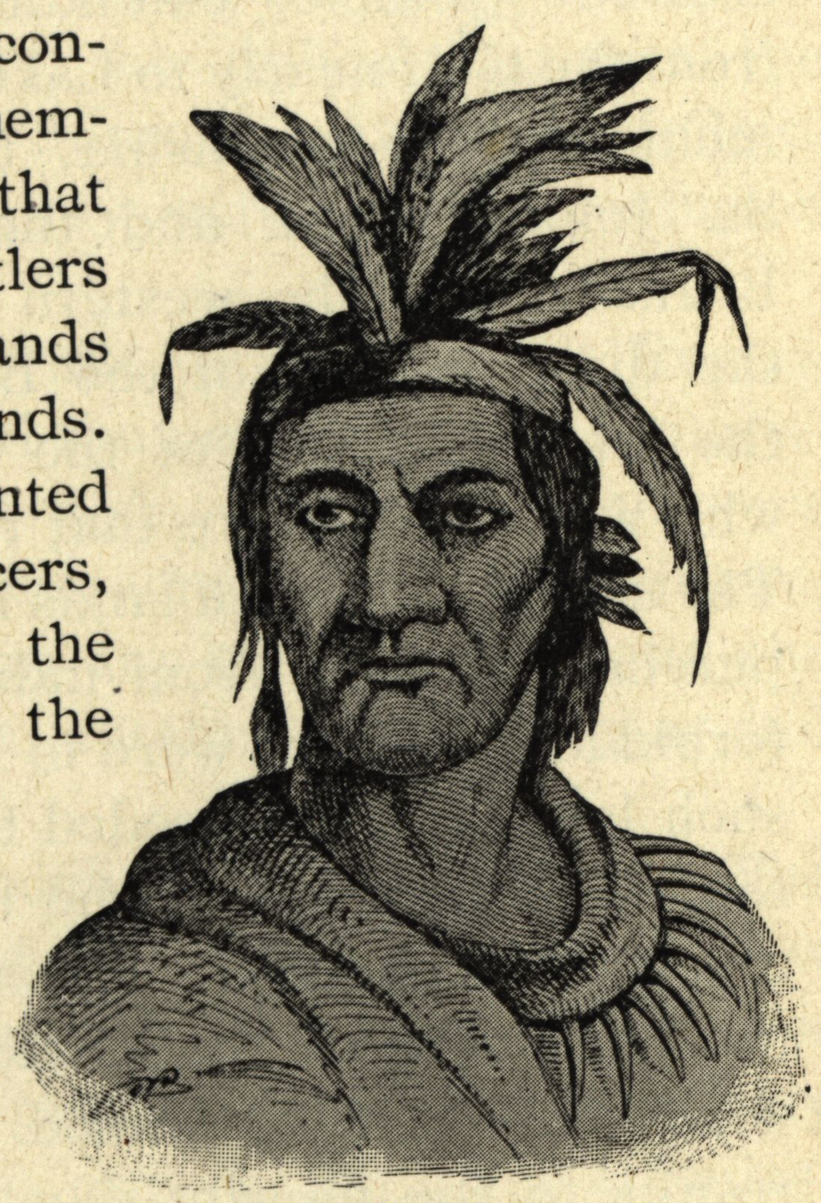
THE PERIOD OF BRITISH RULE

PART V. THE LAYING OF NEW FOUNDATIONS

CHAPTER XIX

UNDER WHICH LAW?

Pontiac's War. — When the British took possession of the western country they found widespread dissatisfaction among the Indians. They disliked the British colonists for their rough, contemptuous manner towards themselves; and they feared that under the new rule settlers would pour in, seize their lands and ruin their hunting grounds. This discontent was fomented by French traders and officers, who, before leaving, told the Indians not to submit to the British, as the French would soon re-occupy the country.



PONTIAC.

A confederacy of Algonquin tribes was organized by a famous Ottawa chief, PONTIAC, to drive the British from the land. In April, 1763, eleven of the principal forts of the region were attacked and all except DETROIT and FORT PITT were taken. In most cases the garrisons were butchered. COL. BOUQUET,

an officer skilled in forest warfare, marched with a strong force into the Ohio Valley, defeated the Indians of that region in a bloody fight near Fort Pitt, and compelled them to make peace. BRADSTREET pushed his way up the lakes to the relief of Detroit which had long been besieged by Pontiac. Failing to receive the hoped-for aid from the French, that chieftain gave up the struggle and his followers quickly submitted to British authority.

The King's Proclamation.—In 1763 a proclamation of King George III. was issued providing for the government of his new territories. Two provinces were created—QUEBEC, extending along the St. Lawrence from the Gulf nearly to Lake Ontario, and NOVA SCOTIA, including the peninsula, together with Cape Breton, St. John's Island and the present province of New Brunswick. The western region was retained under the direct control of the British government, much to the disappointment of the people of the older colonies who wished to secure that rich territory for themselves. The seizure of Indian lands by colonists, or the pretended purchase of them from individual Indians, was strictly forbidden. Grants were to be made to settlers only after such lands had been ceded to the British government by the representatives of the tribe. This wise policy did much to reconcile the Indians to British rule, and was the beginning of that honest and generous treatment which has been continued in Canada with such good results to the present day.

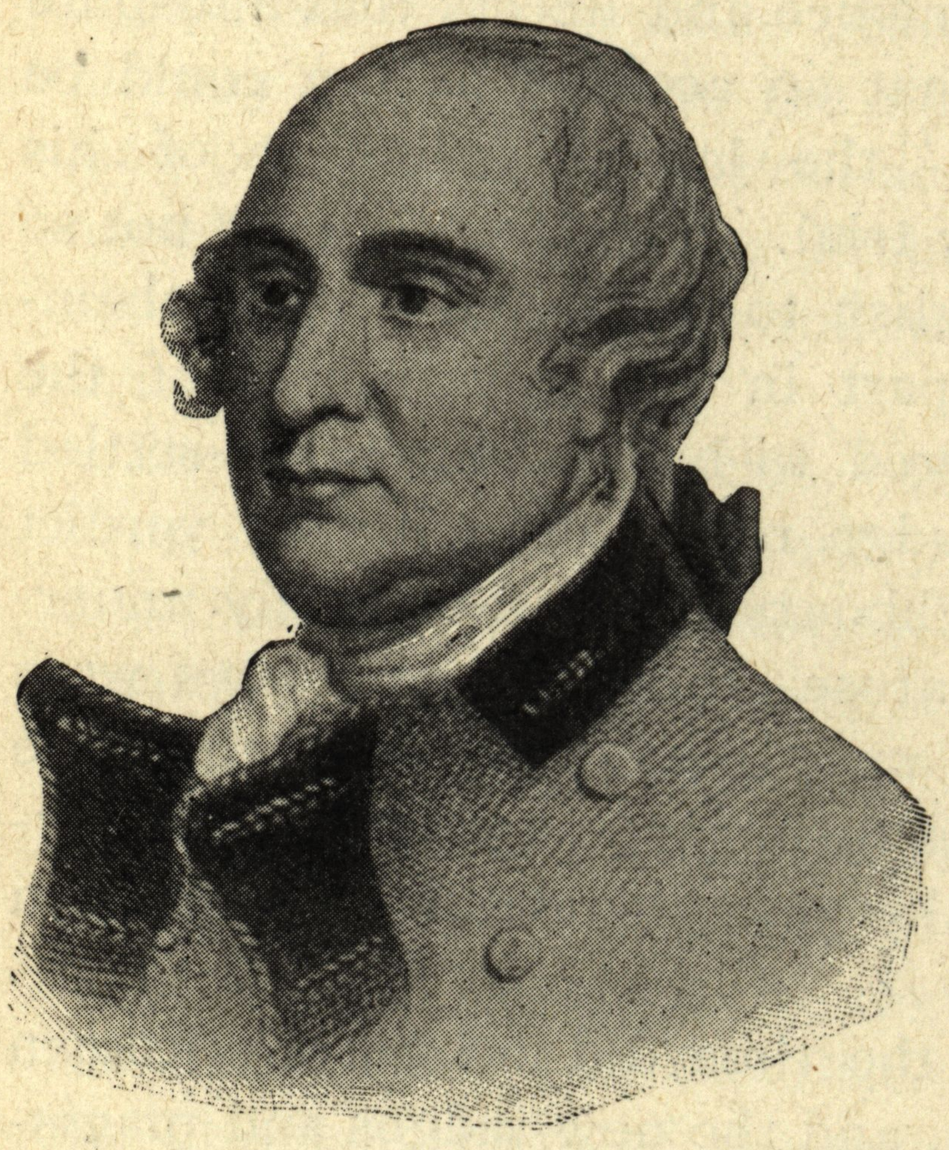
Discontent in Quebec.—In dealing with the government of the province of Quebec the proclamation was not so successful. It ordered that the law-courts should settle all cases brought before them "as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England." Now English law

was very different in many respects from the French law, especially with regard to property. The methods of trial also were unlike. The English people thought it a great safeguard to justice and liberty that a dispute should be settled, or that an accused person could be condemned, only by "the lawful judgment of his peers," that is, by jury trial. The French were not so accustomed as the English to think and act for themselves and to take a part in the government of the country. They preferred to have their cases settled by the decision of a judge rather than by the verdict of twelve of their neighbours. It can be easily understood how discontent arose when the new laws were enforced. So many were the difficulties, that the judges sometimes tried to improve matters by following the old law, but this only increased the confusion and uncertainty.

The English law of the time did not permit Roman Catholics to hold office, and the new judges and magistrates were of necessity British. Many of them were ill-fitted in learning and character for their positions, and they were not likely, in any case, to command the confidence of a people of another race, religion and language.

Nor was the discontent confined to the French. The British inhabitants, most of whom had come from New England, were very angry with Governor Murray for refusing to call upon the people to elect an Assembly like those which helped to govern the older colonies. He was anxious that the French should be justly treated, and thought it unfair that the new-comers, who did not number five hundred, should make the laws for the whole people, as the French, being Roman Catholics, would be excluded. In 1768 Murray was

succeeded by Sir Guy Carleton, who had served under Wolfe in 1759. He, too, sympathized with the French-Canadians and did what he could to protect them from the injustice of the officials. Both parties appealed to the home government. Carleton urged the necessity of restoring French law, at least in civil cases. The British government was the more willing to listen to him and to satisfy the French, as there was danger of their joining the original British colonies, now on the verge of rebellion against the mother country. The parliament of Great Britain, therefore, passed an act which made many changes in the government of Quebec.



SIR GUY CARLETON.

The Quebec Act, 1774.—The principal terms of this important act were as follows:—1. All civil cases, those relating to property, marriage, wills, etc., were to be decided by French law; criminal cases were to be tried by English law. 2. The petition of the British party in the province for an Assembly was not granted, but a Legislative Council was created to assist the governor in law-making; the members of this body were to be appointed by the king for life. 3. The Roman Catholic Church was to enjoy complete religious freedom; the clergy were given the legal right to collect tithes, that

is, one-twenty-sixth of the grain products of the land, Protestants, of course, being exempted; Roman Catholics were no longer to be prevented from holding public offices; one-third of the members of the new council were of that denomination. 4. The boundaries of the province were extended on the west so as to include all the new territory as far as the Ohio and the Mississippi. The object of this clause was to prevent the territory from falling into the hands of the revolting colonies to the east of the Alleghany Mountains.

The Quebec Act gave great satisfaction to the French party by the removal of their real grievances. Their natural leaders, the clergy and the seigneurs, were convinced of the justice and fairness of the British government, and exerted their great influence over the common people in its behalf in the coming struggle with the older colonies.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XIX

1. **Indians under Pontiac make war upon the British in the West, 1763–64.**
2. **King George's Proclamation, 1763,**
   - *a.* establishes the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia (enlarged);
   - *b.* establishes English law in the former.
3. **Discontent in Quebec.**
   - *a.* French demand restoration of French law.
   - *b.* British new-comers demand an assembly.
4. **The Quebec Act, 1774,**
   - *a.* improves the political condition of French Catholics;
   - *b.* extends the province of Quebec into Mississippi Valley.

General Questions

1. What were the causes of Pontiac's war?
2. What were the causes of French discontent? Show how they were removed by the Quebec Act.

CHAPTER XX

CANADA AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Causes of the Revolt.—We have already noted the rapid growth of the American colonies in wealth and population, and have seen that they were allowed by the mother country to manage most of their own affairs. So long as the power of France pressed upon their northern and western frontiers they needed the aid of the motherland against that dangerous foe. But when, with that powerful aid, the French were driven from the continent, wise observers remarked that the colonists would soon feel strong enough to form an independent nation. This result was hastened by the unwise policy of the British government. Britain had spent enormous sums in the Seven Years' War; and, as her colonies had reaped most of the benefit, she thought that they should pay a larger share of the cost.

It was a principle, everywhere acknowledged in Europe at the time, that the mother country should enjoy complete control of colonial commerce. But the British had not recently enforced such laws in America, and the colonists had carried on a profitable trade with the French and Spanish West Indies with little interference. Now, however, George III. and his ministers resolved that British merchants alone should reap such profits, and tried to stop the smuggling with the help of the naval and military forces.

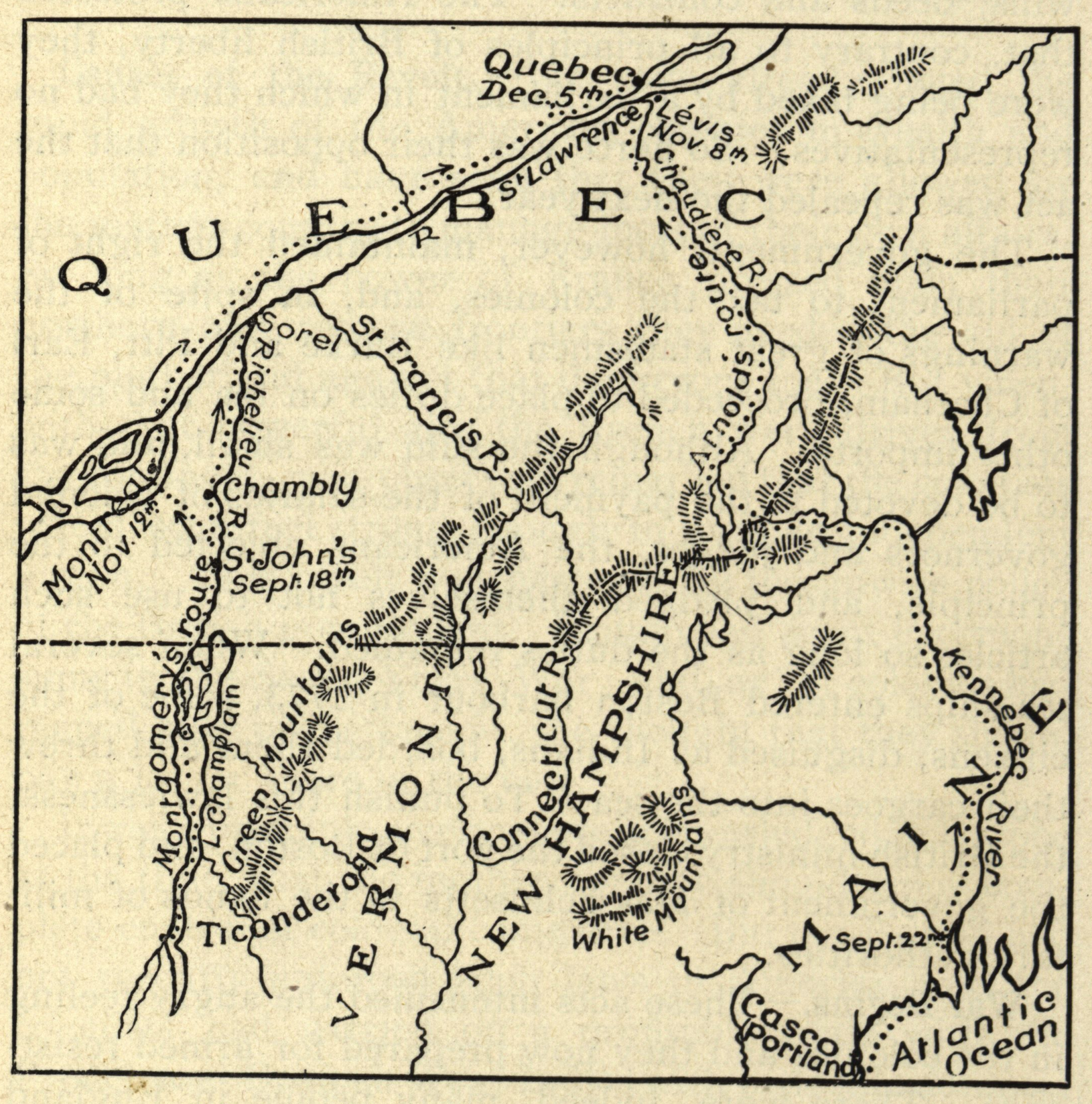
The irritation in the colonies caused by this policy was greatly increased by the STAMP ACT, passed by the British parliament in 1765. At that time Indian troubles

still required the presence of a large force on the Western frontier, and this act was intended to throw a part of the cost of its maintenance on the colonists, by requiring them to place stamps on all legal documents, such as wills, deeds and contracts. The Americans protested that, contrary to all principles of British liberty, they were being taxed by a parliament in which they had no representatives. So fierce was their opposition that the act was repealed the next year.

The government, however, maintained the right of parliament to tax the colonies, and, in spite of the warnings of great statesmen like Burke and Pitt, Earl of Chatham, proceeded to place duties on tea and some other imports. Although the sum was small, and was to be devoted to the payment of the salaries of colonial governors and judges, the Americans objected to the principle, and pledged themselves not to use such articles so long as the duties remained. When several tea-ships entered Boston harbour in 1773, some of the citizens, disguised as Indians, boarded them and threw their cargoes into the sea. To punish this lawlessness, the British ministry closed the port of Boston, and placed the government of Massachusetts in the hands of military authorities.

War Begins.—These acts intensified the angry feeling in the colonies and they now prepared for armed resistance. There were, indeed, many people in England who thought that, while the colonists ought to contribute more largely to the cost of the late war, it was unwise and wrong to force taxation upon them; and there were many in America who were of the same opinion, but who looked with horror on rebellion. Had such opinions prevailed, the quarrel might have been amicably settled. But neither of the extreme parties

would yield, and war broke out in 1775. King George and his advisers had treated the opposition of the colonists with contempt, thinking that they would not dare to fight; or that, if they did, they could be easily



ROUTES OF THE AMERICAN INVASION, 1775.

scattered by the royal army. Little preparation, therefore, was made for the struggle, and the British force in America was small and poorly equipped. The stubborn resistance of the revolutionists in the opening fights at LEXINGTON and BUNKER HILL, near Boston, and the heavy loss of the British, caused great surprise.

The Americans were much encouraged, and recruits poured in by thousands. Their forces were placed under the command of GEORGE WASHINGTON, who had rendered good service in the Seven Years' War. To his unfailing patience and courage, to his wise judgment and unselfish love of country, the final success of the revolution was largely due.

THE CHATEAU DE RAMEZAY, BUILT IN 1705.

The residence of the French governors and the headquarters of the Americans in Montreal.

Canada Invaded, 1775.—The Americans had already invited the new provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia to join them in revolt. In Quebec especially they hoped to overthrow British authority without difficulty. Most of the English-speaking population were immigrants from the older colonies and were in sympathy with the revolution. The agents of the Americans reported that

the French also would join them if they would send an armed force into the province. Two expeditions were accordingly prepared. Eleven hundred men under ARNOLD marched northward through the forests of Maine and down the Chaudière river to Quebec. MONTGOMERY with three thousand men took the route of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu towards Montreal. This way had already been opened by the surprise and capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point in May. St. John's was taken early in November and with it seven hundred men. Governor Carleton's position was now desperate. He had only two hundred regulars left and a few militia. The French clergy and gentlemen, indeed, grateful for the Quebec Act, were loyal to British rule; but the *habitants*, for the most part, remained neutral. Carleton was forced to leave Montreal to its fate; and, slipping through the American forces on the river below, he made his way to Quebec. Montreal was at once occupied by Montgomery and it remained in the possession of the Americans during the next seven months.

The Fifth Siege of Quebec.—Carleton expelled from Quebec all whom he suspected of disloyalty, and from the remaining citizens gathered a force large enough to man the walls and batteries. Arnold had arrived before the city in November, and early in the following month was joined by Montgomery from Montreal. The united force encamped on the Plains of Abraham. Their guns soon opened fire upon the town, but did little damage.

The American leaders now resolved on an attempt to surprise the lower town by a night attack. Before dawn on the thirty-first of December, 1775, Montgomery led a force from Wolfe's Cove eastward along the strand

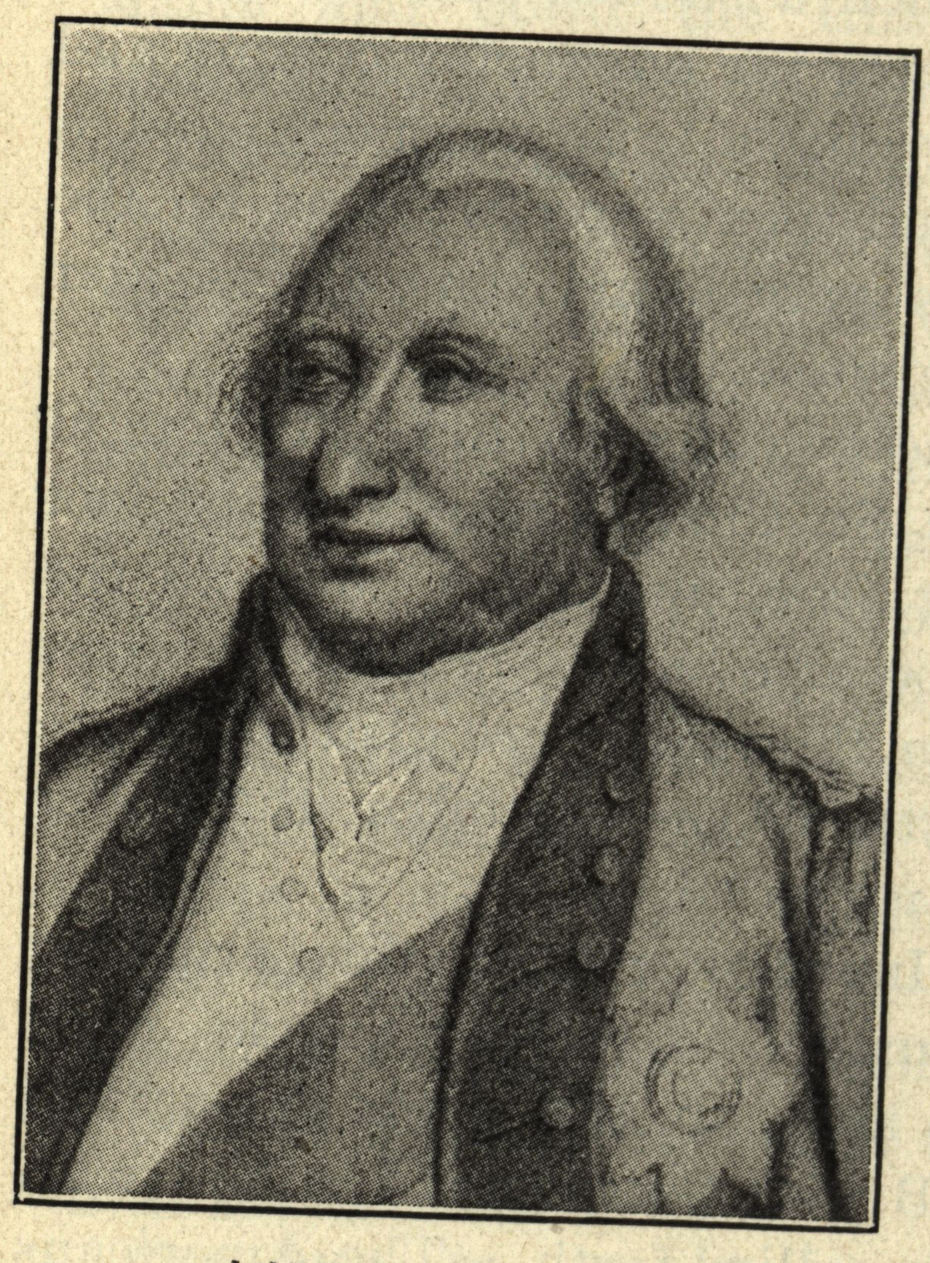
between the cliffs and the stream. Beneath Cape Diamond the narrow path was blocked by a barricade. The guard, consisting of about forty militiamen, was on the alert, but lay hidden until the enemy were only thirty yards distant. Then a sudden blast of cannon shot and musket balls smote the advancing column and turned it into headlong flight. Montgomery and a number of his officers and men were left dead on the road, where their bodies were found some hours later half buried by the falling snow.

In the meantime Arnold had with difficulty fought his way round from the St. Charles nearly to the foot of the pathway leading from the lower town to the upper. But his troops became entangled in the narrow streets; and, attacked in the rear, were glad to escape with a loss of three-fourths of their number, the leader himself being severely wounded.

The Retreat of the Invaders.—After this crushing defeat the Americans made no further attacks upon Quebec, although they kept up the siege throughout the winter. When the British fleet arrived in May with reinforcements, Carleton sallied forth. The Americans retreated in great haste, leaving their cannon and stores behind, and the general's dinner smoking-hot upon the table. The British forces, following up the river, re-occupied Montreal, and by the end of June had cleared Canadian soil of the invaders.

British Defeats.—On the fourth of July, 1776, the Americans proclaimed their independence. The British armies were at first too strong for them in open fight but were unable to subdue them. In 1777 GENERAL BURGOYNE, marching from Canada into New York, was hemmed in among the hills of SARATOGA by the enemy's forces and was compelled to surrender with five thousand

men. This event was the turning point of the war. The Americans took fresh courage. France, eager to avenge the loss of her own colonies by helping to deprive Britain of hers, came to their aid with men and ships, and sent experienced officers to drill the raw forces of her allies. In Europe, Spain joined France in a naval war. Britain was forced to put forth her mightiest efforts to retain command of the sea and keep the way open for the despatch of troops and supplies to America.



LORD CORNWALLIS.

On land, the British forces under Clinton continued the war with some success for a time, but in 1781 a decisive blow fell upon them. LORD CORNWALLIS, commanding in Virginia, allowed his army to be cooped up in YORKTOWN by the French fleet and the allied forces under Washington. With his surrender the war ended. The hearts of the British people were no longer in the struggle against their kinsfolk, and even King George was compelled to acknowledge that it was now impossible to conquer America.

The Treaty of Versailles.—Peace was signed at Versailles in 1783. Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies, henceforth the UNITED STATES.

She also gave up to them all the territory east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes. Spain got Florida, France got nothing—their attempt to wrest away the supremacy of Britain had failed.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XX

1. **Causes of American Revolution.**
   - *a.* Restriction of colonial trade.
   - *b.* Taxation of colonies.
     - Stamp Act, 1765.
     - Duties on imports to colonies.
2. **The Revolutionists invade Canada, 1775.**
   - *a.* Montgomery, by way of Lake Champlain, takes Montreal.
   - *b.* Arnold, by way of Chaudière, besieges Quebec.
   - *c.* Failure of combined forces in their assault on Quebec.
   - *d.* Retreat of Americans from Canada.
3. **The Revolutionists, aided by France and Spain, are victorious.**
4. **Treaty of Versailles acknowledges the independence of the United States, 1783.**

General Questions

1. Why did the British government tax the colonists?
2. What reason did colonists give for refusing to pay?
3. Write an account, in your own words, of the American invasion of Canada.
4. When, by whom, and with what result in each case, has Quebec been besieged?
5. Give the chief events and the chief leaders on each side in the war of the American Revolution.
6. What causes can you give for the defeat of the British in this war?

CHAPTER XXI

THE UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS

Departure from the United States.—As has been said, many of the American colonists had from the first opposed the rebellion, and had fought beside the British regulars for a united empire. As the war progressed, the hatred between them and their revolting neighbours grew more and more bitter. In many cases their families were forced to seek refuge from persecution within the British lines. Even when peace was made, the feeling remained so strong that the victors were unwilling to treat the vanquished with generosity or justice. All Loyalists who had borne arms were proclaimed traitors. In the treaty of Versailles it was provided that the property of the others which had been seized during the war should be restored to them; but the promise was not kept, and now many thousands of the wealthiest and best in the land found themselves reduced to beggary. Nothing remained for them but to seek new homes in the forests of the north under the old flag, for the sake of which they had already suffered so much.

Settlement by the Sea.—A large number had collected in the city of New York, which was still held by the British forces under Sir Guy Carleton. He refused to withdraw from the place until he could provide transportation for the refugees. Most of these settled at various points in Nova Scotia, from Sydney in the east to Annapolis in the west. In the summer of 1783 twelve thousand founded the town of SHELBURNE on the Atlantic

coast; but there was little to keep them there, and most of them finally settled elsewhere. Some found their way to St. John's Island, which had already become a separate province, and which was soon to be named PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND in honour of the Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria.

During the same year many settlements were made on the northern shores of the Bay of Fundy. The largest was at the mouth of the St. John river and was called PARRTOWN from Governor Parr of Nova Scotia. These Loyalists soon asked the privilege of choosing a member to represent them in the Assembly of Nova Scotia. When the governor refused, they petitioned the British government to combine the northern settlements into a new province. This request was readily granted, and in 1784 the province of NEW BRUNSWICK was created. The first capital was Parrtown, whose name was now changed to ST. JOHN, Parr being no longer honoured there. Two years later the seat of government was removed to the village of FREDERICTON farther up the river.

Settlements in the St. Lawrence Valley.—The Loyalists of the interior suffered great hardships as they made their way, with boats or pack-horses, to the British territory in the St. Lawrence Valley. One stream of emigrants followed the Champlain route and settled in the "Eastern Townships" of Quebec and along the banks of the St. Lawrence above Montreal. Another much-used line of travel was up the Mohawk and down the Oswego river to Lake Ontario, on the northern shores of which, and along the Niagara, thousands of Loyalists found homes.

Indian Loyalists.—Nor should we forget those brave Loyalists of another colour—the Iroquois. Many of

them, especially the Mohawks, had taken an active part in the war, and now under the famous chief, JOSEPH BRANT, they followed their white brothers to Canada. Governor Haldimand gave them grants of land along the Grand River. Here in the county of Haldimand, so named from their benefactor, are to be found large settlements of their descendants; and farther up the river, the county of Brant and the city of Brantford commemorate the name of their leader. The total number of Loyalists settling in the British provinces at this time was over 40,000.

JOSEPH BRANT.

Government Aid. — Great Britain was ready to give liberal aid to her sons who had sacrificed so much to maintain the unity of the empire. Free lands were granted to each settler. Commissioners were appointed to examine the claims of those who had lost their property. Finally, nearly nineteen million dollars were paid them in compensation. The enquiry, however, took time, and meanwhile the new-comers in Canada were in need of all things. The government supplied them with axes and spades—sometimes with a cow and a plough—and provisions until the new soil would yield its crops.

Life in the early Loyalist Settlements.—Many of these United Empire Loyalists were gentlemen of rank and wealth. Among their number were the leading judges, lawyers, clergymen and doctors of the Thirteen Colonies, and the hardships of their pioneer life in the Canadian woods were vastly different from the comforts of their

former lot. The first labour in the new home was to clear away the heavy trees and to prepare a patch of ground for the necessary crop of grain. The brush was burned to fertilize the soil with its ashes and some of the trunks were used in the building of their rude cabins. The logs were laid one on top of another and fastened together at the four corners, the chinks between being

A LOYALIST'S CABIN.

stuffed with moss and mud. Such a house would contain a single room, door and window. Stoves were unknown, but at one end a huge fireplace was built of unhewn stones, the chimney being often made of tree-trunks plastered with clay.

Furniture was of the simplest and scantiest. Platforms, strewn with balsam boughs, served for beds; or, perhaps, frames with strips of tough basswood bark stretched across. A rough table and a chair or two would be added when outdoor labours permitted a little leisure.

Yet amidst such humble surroundings there might often be found the relics of former wealth and refinement;—mantel-pieces of dark old oak or mahogany, richly carved; tall "grandfather's clocks" solemnly ticking in the corner, borne with infinite trouble from former homes; or some family heirloom of silver plate, in strange contrast with the rough board on which it stood. The opening of the huge wooden chests might reveal rich gowns of brocaded silk and lace, and no less gorgeous coats and knee-breeches of velvet and satin in green or blue or garnet.

But these fine garments would appear only on grand occasions; everyday clothes were of very different style. The poor were often glad to dress themselves in deer-skins until flax could be grown, spun and woven; for the poorest of cottons, carried through the woods in pedlars' packs, cost two or three dollars a yard. Wool was for years hard to get, it being almost impossible to rear sheep on account of the scarcity of suitable pasture and the abundance of wolves. Even cattle had to be carefully guarded against these savage animals, and we read of their owners tying them to the cabin door at night and in the daytime taking them to where they themselves worked in field or forest.

In these first years, food was often scarce and many would have starved but for the meagre aid from the government. In the year of its withdrawal the crops failed everywhere in the region around the Great Lakes, and the following winter and spring was a time of great distress. Women and children scattered through the woods to gather nuts of different kinds. Basswood buds were boiled with various wild herbs. Game was fairly plentiful, but the means to take it were often wanting. Unsavoury soup was made of coarse bran,

and in one district we are told that a beef-bone was passed from family to family, that each pot might get a little of its flavour. One man offered his farm for a fifty-pound bag of flour—and was refused. Fortunately an abundant harvest in the autumn relieved the suffering, and in time these sturdy colonists grew prosperous. In the Maritime Provinces conditions were somewhat easier, for earlier settlers had there prepared the way.

Much the same were the experiences of all the early pioneers in Canadian forests, whether Loyalists or immigrants from the motherland. And it is well that we, their descendants, should cherish the memory of their fortitude and heroism with honour and gratitude, remembering that trials and hardships, bravely borne, strengthen the life of a nation, and that of the fruits of their unwearied labours we are now reaping an abundant harvest.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXI

1. **Flight of U. E. Loyalists from the United States.**
2. **Settlement in Canada,**
   - *a.* in south-western Nova Scotia,
   - *b.* north of the Bay of Fundy (New Brunswick),
   - *c.* along the shores of the Great Lakes and Upper St. Lawrence.
3. **The generous treatment of the Loyalists by the British government.**
4. **Experiences of the Loyalists in the Canadian backwoods.**

General Questions

1. What towns and districts were settled by the Loyalists?
2. What benefits did Canada receive from the Loyalist immigration?
3. Write in your own words an account of the United Empire Loyalists.

CHAPTER XXII

THE CONSTITUTIONAL ACT—A STEP TOWARDS SELF-GOVERNMENT

Political Discontent.—It was natural that men of the character and education of the Loyalists should take an active interest in the public affairs of their adopted country. Many of them had taken an important part in the government of the old colonies, and, although they had not joined the popular side in the revolution, they firmly believed that the people should have a voice in the making of laws and the levying of taxes. They began to demand an assembly, elected by popular vote, such as had been already established in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Moreover, they did not like the French civil law which had been restored by the Quebec Act. The French, of course, were strongly opposed to any change in this respect, but they were now eager for an assembly to which Roman Catholics as well as Protestants might be elected. Discontent grew deeper. After an absence of eight years, Sir Guy Carleton, now Lord Dorchester, was in 1786 again appointed to the governorship of Quebec, the occupant of which office was henceforth to act as governor-general of all the British American provinces. He was a warm friend of both Loyalists and French. With his assistance the British government, which was anxious that there should be no further disturbance in her remaining colonies, prepared the Constitutional Act, and passed it through parliament in 1791.

Terms of the Constitutional Act.—The old province was divided into two—Upper Canada with a population

wholly English, and Lower Canada where the French were in a vast majority. The government of each province was to consist of a governor appointed by and representing the king, and a parliament or legislature. This body was composed of two parts—a legislative council, the members of which were appointed by the governor for life, and a legislative assembly, elected by the people for a term of four years.

To each parliament was given the power of fixing the laws for its own province, and thus the vexed question of French law or English was settled. In Upper Canada English law was at once established, while no change was made in Lower Canada, the people having become well satisfied with English criminal law, as established by the Quebec Act. The small English population of this province were far from satisfied. They feared that they would have little influence in the assembly when separated from their kinsfolk in Upper Canada. For many years, however, they retained control of the legislative council by means of the governors' appointments, to the great dissatisfaction of the French party.

This act was a step in the direction of self-government, for the people, through the assemblies, had now a voice in law-making and taxation. Yet the main power remained with the governor. His consent was necessary to the passing of laws, and their enforcement was wholly in his hands. He was advised and assisted by an executive council, appointed by the crown and quite independent of the assemblies. The nature of the government, therefore, still depended very largely upon the character of the governor and of his council; and during the next fifty years we shall find many bitter disputes arising between them and the people.

The rights of the Roman Catholic Church conferred by the Quebec Act were confirmed in Lower Canada by the Constitutional Act, while one-seventh of the public lands in each province was set apart for the support of the Protestant clergy.

Upper Canada.—The population of the new province was now about twenty thousand. The capital was NEWARK, a little village at the mouth of the Niagara, and there the first parliament met in 1792. The legislative council had nine members and the assembly sixteen.

GOVERNOR SIMCOE.

COLONEL SIMCOE, who had commanded a Loyalist regiment in the war, was the first governor. He was very active in the interests of the province, opening up roads and promoting immigration. Before he left, in 1796, the capital was removed from Newark, as it was commanded by the guns of the American fort across the river. A spot on the north-western shore of Lake Ontario, where there was a fine harbour, was chosen in its stead. Here Simcoe founded the town of YORK. In 1834 its ancient Indian name of Toronto was restored.

Lower Canada. — In the lower province there were nearly 130,000 people. Those of British origin lived principally in the towns and along the southern border. The French were prosperous and, in the main, contented under British rule. Trade was brisk, taxation was light, and unpaid labour on public works was no longer exacted of them as in the days before the conquest. The parliament consisted of fifteen councillors

YORK IN 1803.

and fifty assemblymen, one-third of the latter being British. The assembly chose M. PANET, a French lawyer, for speaker, as the presiding officer is called. It was declared that debates might be conducted, and that records must be kept, in the French language as well as in the English.

Under the wise and just rule of Lord Dorchester, who continued in office till 1796, public business was carried on without friction. Afterwards, especially during the governorship of SIR JAMES CRAIG, fierce political

disputes arose. The French majority in the assembly complained that the governor appointed far too many councillors and officials from the British party. They demanded that judges should be excluded from parliament, and that the executive council should give account of the expenditure of public money before it asked the assembly to vote more. Canada was now threatened with an attack from the United States, and the stern old soldier in the governor's chair thought that the assembly should be providing money for the defence of the country instead of stirring up agitation. He angrily told the members that they were wasting their time, and ordered a new election. The same men, however, were again returned. Craig now imprisoned some of his leading opponents, and stopped the publication of the newspaper *Le Canadien*, which was bitterly attacking him and his advisers. This act did not meet with the approval of the British government, and in 1811 he was replaced by SIR GEORGE PREVOST. Now, however, war was declared by the United States, and all parties joined loyally together to meet the danger.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXII

1. **Discontent of Loyalists in Quebec,**
   demanding an assembly and English law.
2. **The Constitutional Act, 1791,**
   a. dividing Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada;
   b. adding an elective assembly to the government of each province.
3. **Conditions in Upper and Lower Canada.**

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What causes led to the passage of the Constitutional Act? Give its date and terms.
2. Write a composition on Sir Guy Carleton, Lord Dorchester.
3. What political troubles arose in Lower Canada?

CHAPTER XXIII

THE WAR OF 1812–14

Causes.—Although most of the fighting in this war occurred on the soil of Canada, she had done nothing to provoke it. To understand its causes we must turn to the great contest between Britain and Napoleon, the emperor of France. This ambitious conqueror, successful everywhere else, had failed to bring Britain under his power. He now sought to cripple the "mistress of the seas" by striking at her trade, the great source of her wealth. In 1806 he issued the BERLIN DECREES, excluding her merchandise from France and the countries under her control, and ordering the seizure of the ships of any nation which touched at British ports. Britain replied by the ORDERS-IN-COUNCIL, forbidding neutral countries to trade with those countries under Napoleon's power. The chief sufferer from these decrees and orders was the United States. Her trade had increased enormously during the war, especially by the purchase of the products of the French and Spanish colonies and by their sale to the mother countries. Now hundreds of her vessels were captured, more of course by the British than by the French. There was, therefore, the greater bitterness felt towards the former.

This bitterness was intensified by the claim advanced by Britain of the *right of search* in American ships for deserters from the royal navy. To maintain the strength of her fleet during the long struggle, she was compelled to use the press-gang to obtain the necessary

crews. Many of such men were induced to desert by the hard conditions of life in the navy and by offers of high wages in American vessels. British warships often exercised the right with unnecessary harshness.

A large party in the United States was inclined to sympathize with the French in the present struggle because of the aid received from them in the revolution, and was eager for war with Britain in the hope that her flag might be driven from North America and that Canada would be thus forced into the Union.

The British government finally withdrew the orders-in-council; but before the news reached the United States, war had been declared by President Madison.

The Condition of Canada.—The declaration of war found Canada ill-prepared. Her frontiers lay exposed to invasion for twelve hundred miles. To guard them there were only four thousand five hundred regular troops in the country. Britain was making the utmost exertions to resist Napoleon and could spare few additional soldiers or ships to meet the new foe in America—Canada must rely on her own people to strengthen the defending forces. The total population of the British-American provinces was about four hundred thousand—one-fifteenth that of the United States. The spirit of the people rose with the danger. The provincial parliaments voted large sums of money, and volunteers flocked to enrol themselves in such numbers that the supply of arms was soon exhausted. The people of the Maritime Provinces were untouched by the war, save for the occasional raids of privateers, but sent aid in men and money to their brothers in the west.

In Quebec Sir George Prevost, who was commander-in-chief, raised four battalions of militia and a regiment of French-Canadian *voltigeurs*, or light infantry,

composed of young men, and trained like regulars. The commander of the latter was a French seigneur, De Salaberry, who had served in the British army.

The brunt of the attack was to fall on Upper Canada. Her population was under eighty thousand. Many were recent immigrants from the United States, whose loyalty to the new flag was not above suspicion. But the old spirit of the United Empire Loyalists was still strong; and if the forces were few, they were under the command of one of the bravest and ablest leaders of the war, General Brock.

Brock.—This officer was born in the island of Guernsey in 1769, the birth year of Wellington and of Napoleon, and had already seen much service in war. Coming to Canada in 1802 as colonel of his regiment, he was now governor of the upper province, as well as commander of the forces there. With foresight keener than that of Sir George Prevost or of the British government, he had judged that war was certain; and when it came, he was prepared, as far as his limited means would allow. The people caught some of his energy and enthusiasm

SIR ISAAC BROCK.

and took fresh courage. Unlike many regular officers, he appreciated the true value of the untrained militiamen who flocked to his standard, and his frank and kindly bearing won the hearts of all his troops.

American Plans.—The most important land events of each campaign of the war, group themselves around the regions where Canada could be most easily attacked—in the west, around Detroit; in the centre, along the Niagara; and in the east along the St. Lawrence and the Lower Canadian frontier to the Richelieu. Eastward of that river no invasion was attempted, partly owing to the savage wilderness along the boundary, and partly to the decided opposition of the New England people to the war. In 1812 a large force was gathered at Albany under GENERAL DEARBORN to advance by Lake Champlain and to strike at Montreal. Six thousand regulars and militia assembled along the Niagara under VAN RENSSELAER, while HULL with two thousand five hundred troops was to cross from Detroit and occupy the western peninsula of Upper Canada. Although the British were forced for the most part to remain on the defensive, they were able, owing to Brock's enterprise, to strike the first blow—a successful one—in the north-west.

Michillimackinac Taken.—On the news of the declaration of war, Brock sent orders to the British force on the island of St. Joseph to attack the important American post of MICHILLIMACKINAC, the key to the entrance of Lake Michigan and the centre of the north-western fur trade. It was yielded without resistance, the garrison being quite unprepared and ignorant of the outbreak of war. This early success confirmed the loyalty of the Indians, and many of them took arms against the Americans.

Tecumseh.—Of these Indian allies the most notable leader was Tecumseh, chief of the Shawanoes. He and his people had been driven from their former homes in the Ohio valley by the advancing tide of American settlement. There was constant trouble between the white men and the redmen; for the generous policy of the British government in dealing with the western Indians, already mentioned, had not been followed by the authorities of the United States.

TECUMSEH.

Tecumseh was a warrior of great courage and skill, and had remarkable influence over his own and other tribes. Having seen the evil effects of strong drink among the Indians, he became a total abstainer himself, and induced many to follow his example. He was humane and honourable, sternly checking the usual cruelties of Indian warfare.

Brock Captures Detroit.—In July Hull crossed the Detroit river into Canada with a force which he boastingly proclaimed large enough "to look down opposition," should the Canadians dare to offer any. Brock hurried west with such reinforcements as could be spared. But before his arrival, Hull, alarmed by the fall of Michillimackinac and by an Indian attack on his rear, retreated to Detroit.

Brock boldly resolved to attack the enemy. With a force of thirteen hundred men, three-fourths of whom

were militia and Indians, he crossed the river south of Detroit in order to cut off their communications. When he advanced to attack the town, Hull, whose provisions were running short, surrendered almost before a blow had been struck. Two thousand five hundred men and thirty-three cannon were thus given up, together with Detroit and the whole territory of Michigan. The news of this unexpected victory was received with unbounded joy throughout Canada, and Brock's name was on every lip.

A Truce.—The British government hoped that since the Orders-in-Council had been recalled, peace might now be arranged, and with their approval Sir George Prevost made a truce with Dearborn, the American commander-in-chief. The American government, however, rejected all proposals and the fighting continued.

The Battle of Queenston Heights.—Van Renssellaer now prepared for a second invasion of Canada from Lewiston, on the Niagara. Brock had but fifteen hundred men scattered along the entire frontier of thirty-five miles. He himself with the main force was at Fort George where he expected the American attack to be made; while at QUEENSTON, opposite Lewiston, there were only a few companies of regulars and militia.

Before dawn on the thirteenth of October, a strong party of the enemy crossed the river and landed near the foot of the Heights that stretch westward from Queenston. The little British force was on the alert and fired a well-directed volley through the dark into the invaders, which brought down over fifty, including the leader. The Americans were driven back to the river-brink and there remained till daylight, although steadily reinforced from their own side.

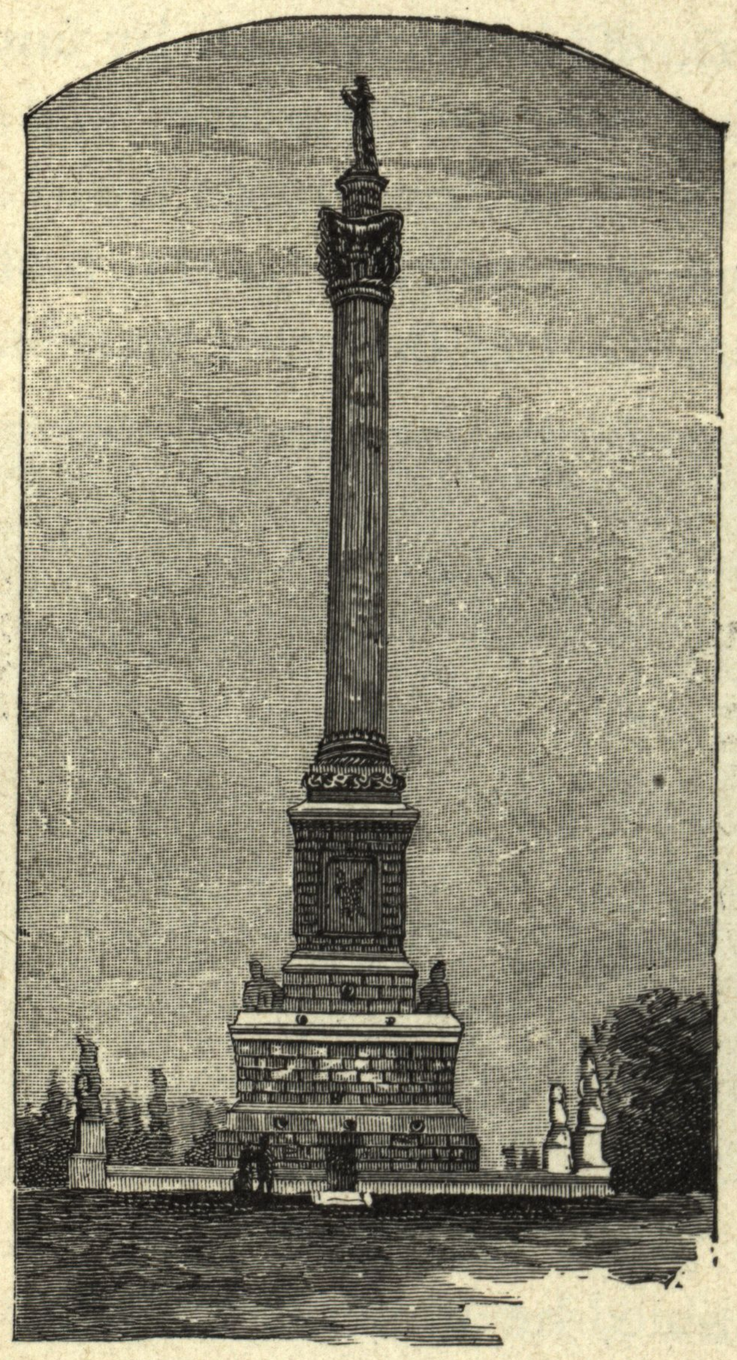
Shortly after sunrise, Brock came galloping up from Fort George and at once climbed to the one-gun battery, situated half-way up the Heights, to get a better view of the situation. A few minutes later a large body of Americans which, unobserved, had scrambled by an unguarded path up the precipice from the river, suddenly burst from the bushes only a few yards away. Brock and his companions hastily retreated to the foot of the hill, leaving the battery in the enemy's hands.

QUEENSTON IN 1812.

Gathering the few men available, he gallantly charged at their head up the slope to regain the post. His tall form and distinguished appearance made him a shining mark, and, pierced by a musket-ball, he fell with the shout, "Push on, brave York volunteers!" on his lips. His men wavered before the fierce fire, but again advanced under command of Colonel McDonell of Glengarry, Brock's aide-de-camp and devoted friend. He, too, was shot down, and the British retreated to the village to await the coming of the main force from Fort George.

It arrived shortly after noon, led by General Sheaffe. Not wishing to climb the Heights in face of the enemy,

he made a wide detour to the west and approached them on the upper level. The troops were burning to avenge the death of their beloved general, and charged fiercely with the bayonet. A volley fired at a distance of forty yards brought many down but failed to stop the rush, and the Americans were driven in headlong flight over the cliffs. Some escaped across the river, many were drowned in the attempt, but most of them surrendered at the river-brink. At the close of the day Sheaffe had a thousand prisoners of war on his hands.



BROCK'S MONUMENT AT QUEENSTON HEIGHTS.

It was indeed a glorious victory, but rejoicing in Canada was everywhere clouded with grief for the loss of Brock. He did not live to win the victory, but he gave his life for the country he had served so well. The grateful remembrance of that service by the Canadian people is recorded by the tall column which marks his last resting place on Queenston Heights.

The Close of the Campaign.—Late in November the Americans under General Smyth, successor to Van Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara below Fort Erie. The invasion, however, was not vigorously pushed and accomplished nothing. Of a similar character was General Dearborn's attack on Lower Canada about

the same time. Thus closed the campaign of 1812, unmarked by a single success of the Americans in their attempts to conquer Canada.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXIII

1. **Causes of war with United States.**
   - *a.* British interference with trade between U.S. and France.
   - *b.* Search of American vessels for British deserters.
   - *c.* American desire to acquire Canada.
2. **The military condition of Canada.**
3. **The campaign of 1812.**
   - *a.* In the west.
     - British take Michillimackinac.
     - Hull invades Upper Canada.
     - Brock takes Detroit.
   - *b.* In the centre.
     - American invasion repelled at Queenston Heights.
     - Brock's death.
   - *c.* In the east.
     - Dearborn fails to invade Lower Canada.

General Questions

1. Explain why the Americans sympathized with France rather than with Britain in the Napoleonic wars.
2. Write in your own words an account of Brock.
3. Write from memory and in your own words a description of the Battle of Queenston Heights.

CHAPTER XXIV

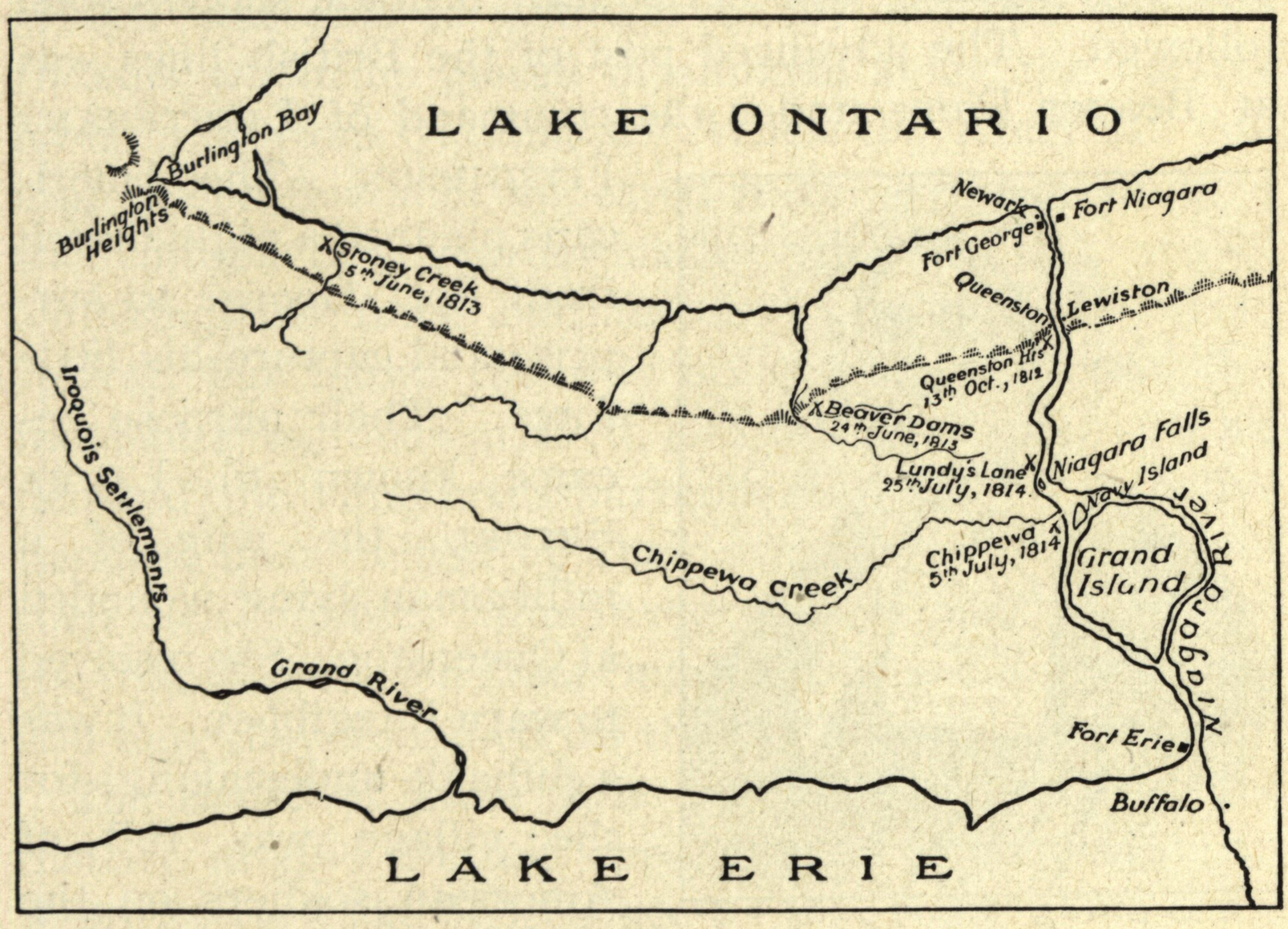
THE CAMPAIGN OF 1813

Preparations.—The American government was roused by the failures of 1812 and made vigorous preparations for the coming campaign. The regular army was increased to 56,000 men, and the naval forces on Lakes Erie and Ontario were greatly strengthened. Although Sir George Prevost understood how the safety of Upper Canada depended on the command of these lakes, he acted with so little energy that when spring came the British were for a time quite unprepared to meet their opponents on even terms.

American Successes on Lake Ontario.—In April a strong fleet under CHAUNCEY, carrying a land force under DEARBORN, sailed from SACKETT'S HARBOUR to attack YORK, the capital of Upper Canada. The place was almost unfortified, and the force under Sheaffe was altogether too small to defend it long. It was captured, the public buildings were burned and many of the houses plundered. The expedition then crossed the lake to aid in the capture of FORT GEORGE. GENERAL VINCENT, British commander in the Niagara district, had only fourteen hundred men to defend it. After a sharp fight, in which he suffered severely, he was forced to abandon his post and retreat to BURLINGTON HEIGHTS, now Hamilton, at the head of Lake Ontario. By this victory the Americans secured control for a time of the whole of the Niagara frontier.

While the American fleet was absent, Sackett's Harbour was attacked by a British naval expedition

under the command of Sir George Prevost and Sir James Yeo. The place contained valuable military stores and was the chief naval port on the American side of the lake. The garrison was small, however, and was in full retreat before the British force, when the latter was for some unexplained reason recalled by Sir George Prevost, much to the disappointment and anger of his officers and men.



THE NIAGARA FRONTIER, 1812–14.

Stoney Creek.—As the British retreated westward from Fort George they were followed by three thousand five hundred Americans under generals Winder and Chandler. On June 5 they encamped at Stoney Creek, seven miles east of Burlington Heights. Col. Harvey, learning that a careless watch was kept, proposed a night attack upon them. Vincent gave him seven hundred men for the attempt and accompanied the

party himself, but left the command to his subordinate. The party crept cautiously forward through the darkness and fell suddenly upon the sleeping camp. The Americans fled in confusion, leaving a number of guns and prisoners, including both generals, in the hands of the victors. This stroke greatly discouraged the invaders, and they retreated to Fort George, abandoning the most of the Niagara peninsula again to the British.

Beaver Dams.—Another equally brilliant success soon followed. The advanced post of the British lines was at Beaver Dams under the command of LIEUTENANT FITZGIBBON. The Americans planned a night march from Fort George to surprise and capture his little force. Their purpose became known to LAURA SECORD, the wife of a militiaman lying wounded at Queenston. She resolved to warn Fitzgibbon. It was a difficult undertaking, for the village was full of American soldiers on the alert to prevent any messengers reaching the British post. Starting at sunrise, hatless, with milkpail in hand and slippers on feet, as if engaged in her usual morning task, she succeeded in satisfying the sentries, and reached the woods. It was now impossible to keep the road, for it was guarded by numerous pickets whom she could no longer deceive, and she made her way in the intense heat of a summer day for twenty long miles through the tangle of swamps and woods that lay

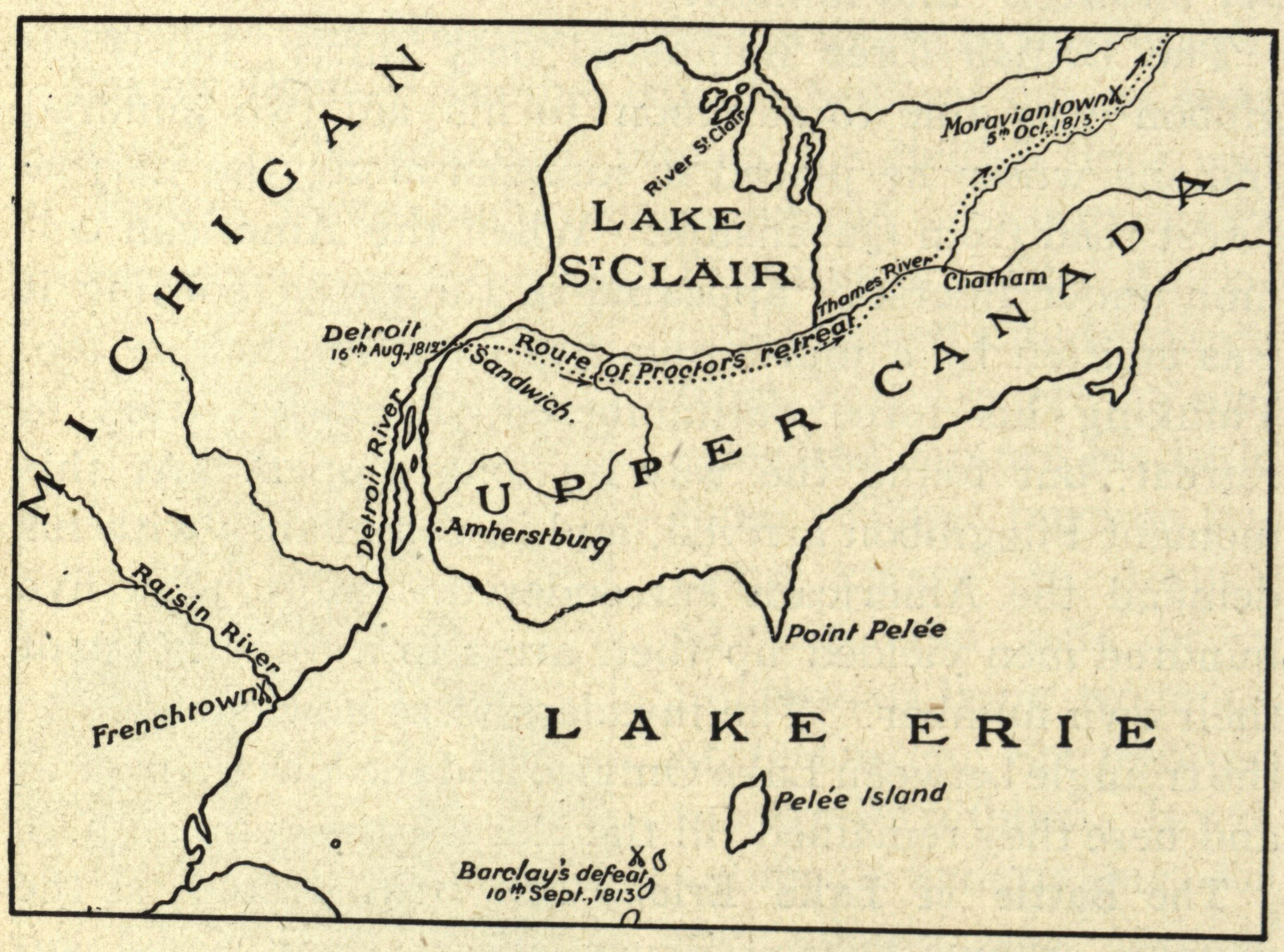
LAURA SECORD.
Taken in old age for the Prince of Wales.

between her and her destination. Though often losing her way and sometimes startled by the rattle of a snake or the howl of a wolf, she did not falter in her purpose, even when she fell into the hands of a band of whooping Indians. They proved to be friends, however, and conducted her to Fitzgibbon, to whom she delivered her message—and fainted.

The British force numbered only thirty, but Fitzgibbon was able to summon to his aid two hundred Indians whom he placed in ambush along the narrow forest road from Queenston. When the American column under Boerstler appeared in the early morning it was smitten by a murderous fire from the hidden foe. Thinking his force outnumbered, Boerstler tried to retreat, but found the way no longer open. At this moment Fitzgibbon arrived, and in compliance with his demand the Americans surrendered. More than five hundred men yielded up their arms to a force not half their own number. The invaders were now confined to the triangle between Lake Ontario and the lower Niagara, and here they remained till the close of the campaign.

The Battle of Lake Erie.—The British hold on the district around Detroit depended on their naval superiority on Lake Erie, since by that route alone could troops and supplies be sent to the west. They had a number of vessels upon the lake under the command of BARCLAY, a brave officer who had fought under Nelson; but they were poorly supplied with trained sailors and proper cannon. The American fleet, on the other hand, was well equipped and strongly manned by the crews of the ocean vessels now blockaded in the Atlantic ports by the British. In a fierce battle fought near the western end of the lake in September, Barclay was defeated and his whole fleet captured.

Detroit Abandoned.—The British force at Detroit numbered about nine hundred men commanded by GENERAL PROCTOR. With him were Tecumseh and a number of Indian warriors. Their position was now desperate. Provisions and ammunition were almost exhausted, and an army of five thousand Americans under HARRISON



THE DETROIT FRONTIER, 1812–14.

was rapidly approaching. Proctor did not await them. Destroying warlike stores which he could not carry, he retreated up the Thames.

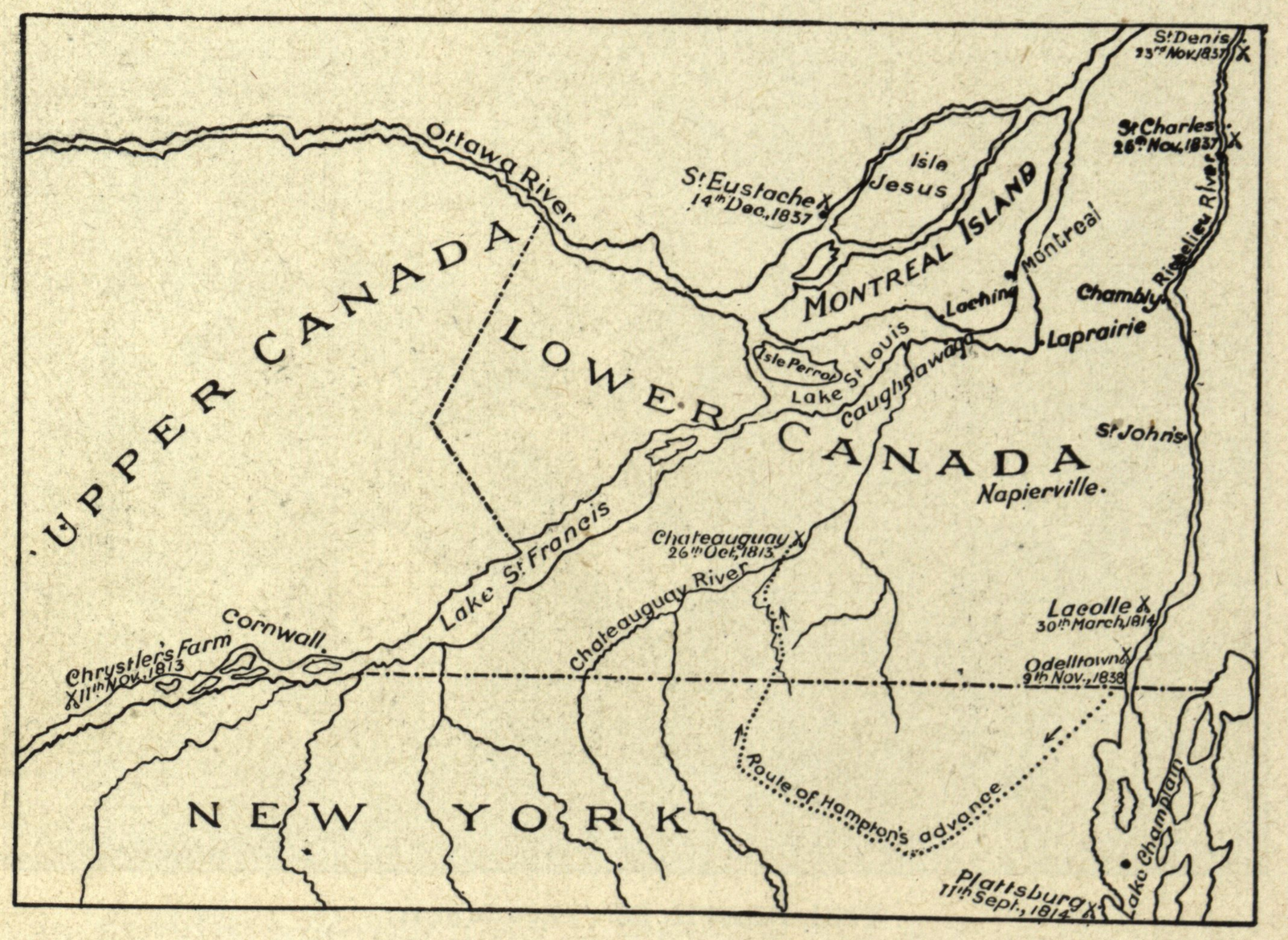
Moraviantown.—Harrison sent in pursuit of him a force of three thousand five hundred men, many of whom were mounted riflemen accustomed to forest warfare. Proctor was soon overtaken by the Americans. He turned to face them at Moraviantown, about twenty miles below the present city of London. His little force of regulars was soon swept away by the charge of the

enemy. The Indians were next attacked, but they resisted stubbornly and gave way only after Tecumseh and many of his followers had been slain. The rest made no attempt to rejoin Proctor, and that unfortunate officer was able to muster only two hundred and fifty of his whole force when, after much hardship and suffering, they reached Burlington Heights.

THE DEATH OF TECUMSEH.

Montreal Threatened.—At the head of ship navigation on the St. Lawrence stands the city of Montreal. At that point troops and supplies of food and ammunition brought by steamer from Quebec were landed. They were embarked again above the Lachine Rapids in large boats and carried up the river to various points in Upper Canada. If the city were captured, the country above would be cut off from the sea and the slender forces there would soon be overpowered or starved into

surrender. Such were the hopes of the Americans. To realize them two great expeditions were prepared. WILKINSON with nine thousand men was to descend the St. Lawrence from Sackett's Harbour. HAMPTON with over five thousand was to follow the Richelieu, and join Wilkinson before Montreal. Their task seemed an easy one; for Montreal was unfortified, and between it and the frontiers there were scarcely more than two thousand men.



SKETCH MAP TO ILLUSTRATE EVENTS OF 1812–14 AND 1837–38.

Chateauguay.—Hampton was the first to move. Failing to force a passage through the swampy forests west of the Richelieu, he recrossed the border, moved westward and descended the Chateauguay river. On the 26th of October he came upon the advance guard of the Canadian force under DE SALABERRY. This skilful officer had chosen a position in the forest where the road, which runs close to the Chateauguay, was crossed

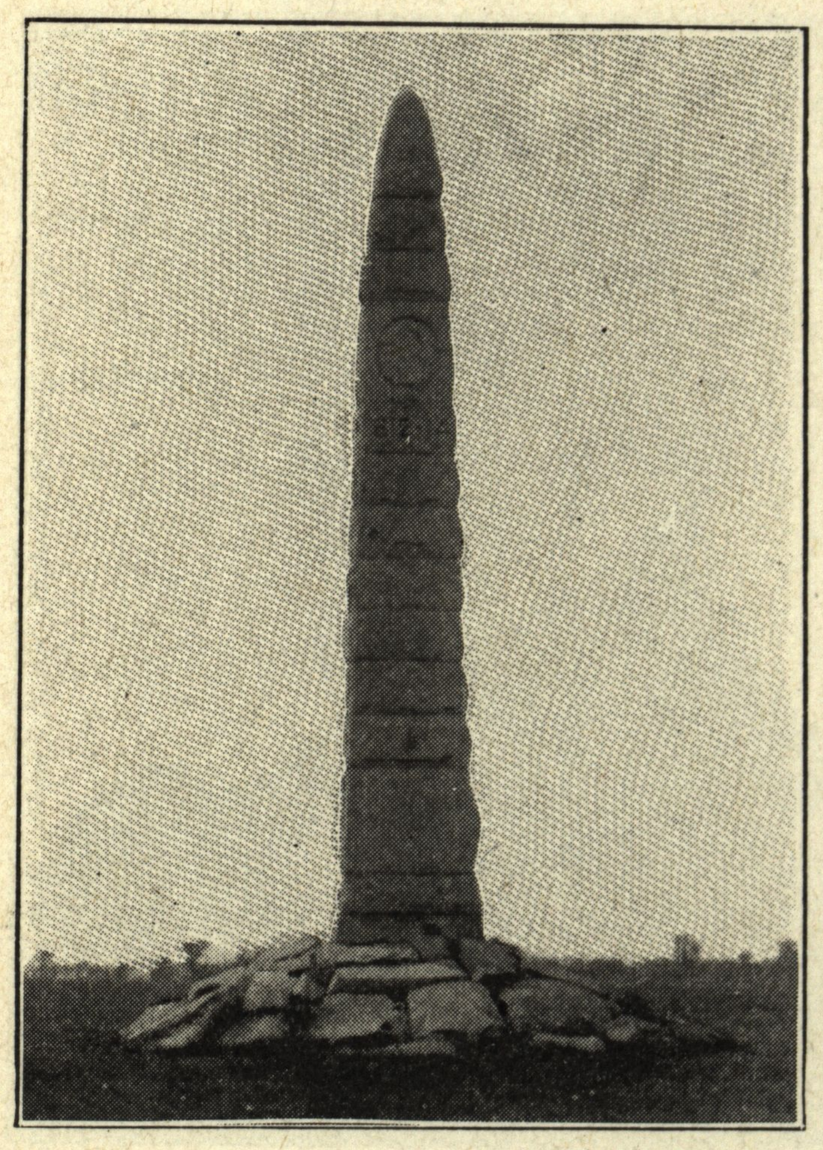
by a number of gullies or shallow ravines. The banks of these had been lined with breastworks of logs and heaps of fallen trees. De Salaberry with three hundred *voltigeurs* and a few Indians took post behind the front line. Guarding the fords a little farther down the river, were six hundred men under McDonell, a brother of the officer who had fallen at Queenston. This force had just arrived, having rowed and marched from Kingston, a distance of two hundred miles, in sixty hours. The very numbers of the Americans were a hindrance to them in the narrow road, and they could make little impression on the lines in front. They were completely deceived as to the strength of the Canadians, by a clever ruse of De Salaberry. He scattered his Indians and buglers through the forest and their warwhoops and signal calls convinced the Americans that a large force was moving to attack them on the flank. After the American attempt to force the fords in the rear had been defeated by McDonell, Hampton gave the order to retreat and soon withdrew into American territory.

COLONEL DE SALABERRY.

Most of the defending force at Chateauguay were French-Canadians; and the brilliant victory was due as

much to their courage and their leaders' skill as to the difficult nature of the country and the lack of determination on the part of the Americans.

Chrystler's Farm.—The American leaders were intensely jealous of each other, and Hampton sent no word of his failure to Wilkinson, the commander-in-chief. The latter commenced his descent of the St. Lawrence on November 5th with eight thousand men. There was no force in front strong enough to oppose him, but he was followed by Col. Morrison with eight hundred men and a few gunboats. Before running the rapids above Cornwall, Wilkinson landed two thousand five hundred of his men near Chrystler's Farm, to brush back this British force. A sharp fight took place in which the American attack was gallantry repulsed by Morrison on November 11th. The invading army continued on its way. Next day, however, news of Hampton's defeat arrived, more than two weeks after the event. Winter was at hand and Wilkinson, who was in poor health, at once abandoned the expedition against Montreal and retreated southwards. Canada again breathed freely. These successes in the east were thought to compensate in some measure for the disasters to the British arms in the west.



THE MONUMENT AT CHATEAUGUAY.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXIV

1. **The campaign of 1813 in the centre.**
   - *a.* Americans capture York.
   - *b.* Americans capture Fort George.
   - *c.* American advance to Burlington Heights checked at Stoney Creek.
   - *d.* British victory at Beaver Dams.
2. **The campaign of 1813 in the west.**
   - *a.* American naval victory on Lake Erie.
   - *b.* Proctor abandons Detroit.
   - *c.* Proctor defeated by Harrison at Moraviantown.
3. **The campaign of 1813 in the east.**
   - *a.* Hampton's expedition against Montreal defeated at Chateauguay.
   - *b.* Wilkinson's expedition against Montreal defeated at Chrystler's Farm.

General Questions

1. What important results followed the battles of Lake Erie and of Chateauguay?
2. What leaders in this campaign showed the most military skill? Give reasons for your answer.
3. What reasons can you give for the failure of the American campaign in the east?

CHAPTER XXV

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1814

New Leaders.—In March Wilkinson again invaded Lower Canada by way of the Richelieu, but, failing to dislodge the British from their position at LACOLLE MILL, he again retreated. He was replaced by GENERAL BROWN as commander of the American armies. SIR GORDON DRUMMOND was now in charge of the British forces in Upper Canada, and under him was RIALL, commanding on the Niagara.

The Niagara District again invaded.—The American forces were now gathered from all quarters to make another effort to conquer Upper Canada. Early in July General Brown crossed the Niagara with over five thousand troops, well drilled and equipped. After capturing FORT ERIE, he marched northward. General Riall, rendered too confident, perhaps, by former British victories against similar odds, advanced from his strong position at CHIPPEWA to meet him with fewer than two thousand men. The British were beaten, however, and Riall was forced to retreat to Fort George, having lost nearly one-third of his forces.

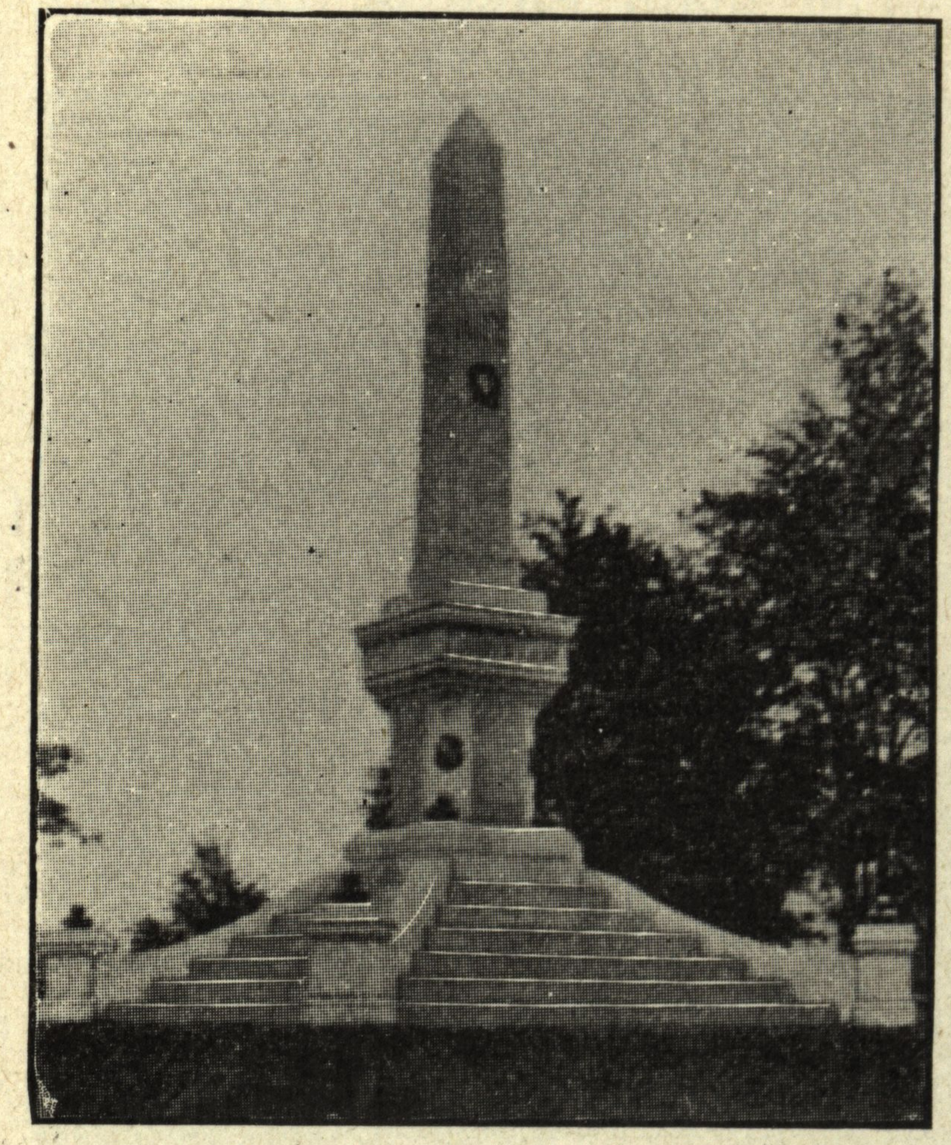
Lundy's Lane.—Drummond hurried from Kingston with what reinforcements he could gather to strengthen Riall's little army. Taking command of the united force, he marched south and occupied a low ridge at Lundy's Lane, commanding the roads leading to Fort George and to Burlington Heights. The British were just in time, for the Americans were already on the slope, and the greatest battle of the war began. It was

now evening, and for six hours of that hot July night the contending armies fought with equal courage and determination, the British to hold the ridge and the Americans to take it. The main force of the latter soon arrived; but, although they far out-numbered the defenders, they were unable to dislodge them.

SIR GORDON DRUMMOND.

At nine o'clock there was a pause in the struggle. Fortunately for the British, they also were now reinforced by twelve hundred men who had marched more than twenty miles to aid their comrades. Darkness had settled on the field. Under its cover the Americans suddenly charged up the slope and seized the guns above. The British rallied and drove them back with the bayonet. Again and again they returned but were as often repulsed. It was a blind, confused, murderous conflict where men fought hand to hand and where leadership was of no avail. By midnight the wearied soldiers could fight no longer. The Americans retired to their camp beside the Falls, while the British sank to sleep on the ground which they had so bravely held. Each side lost nearly a thousand men.

Next morning the Americans threw into the river what baggage they could not carry, and retreated to Fort Erie. By the time when Drummond was able to follow, that place had been greatly strengthened, and the British attack was repulsed with heavy loss.



THE MONUMENT AT LUNDY'S LANE.

Prevost's failure at Plattsburg.—The war in Europe was now ended. Reinforcements were sent to Canada. Prevost soon had ten thousand men at his command, and with them he invaded the United States in September by way of Lake Champlain. He reached Plattsburg almost without opposition, for the American troops were few in number. Off that town, however, the British flotilla was defeated; and Prevost, having lost command of the lake, retreated without striking a blow, in spite of the angry protests of his officers. On account of this and other failures, he was summoned to England for trial, but died before it took place.

Events of the War at Sea.—The American fleet on the Atlantic was not numerous, but the vessels were swift, well-manned, and armed with powerful guns. At the beginning of the war most of the British warships were engaged in blockading the coasts of France, and only second-class vessels were sent to America by the

government, who quite underestimated the strength of the enemy. In consequence ship after ship was captured by the Americans.

In June, 1813, the SHANNON met the American CHESAPEAKE off Boston. The vessels were of about equal strength, but so fiercely did the British sailors fight to win back their lost laurels that the Chesapeake was in their hands within fifteen minutes of the beginning of the fight.

Soon afterwards the British fleet, relieved of its task in Europe, blockaded the American ports and captured many merchant vessels. Troops were landed in various points and much damage was done in revenge for the burning of towns and villages in Canada. There would have been as great difficulty in conquering the country, however, as the Americans had found in their attempts to conquer Canada.

The Treaty of Ghent.—Both nations were weary of the useless struggle, and in December, 1814, their representatives signed a treaty of peace at Ghent, a town in Belgium. Territory seized by either party during the war was restored. No mention was made of the disputes on account of which the Americans had declared war.

Effects of the War in Canada.—The various invasions of Canada had caused much suffering and loss of property, and to repel them the blood of her people had been freely shed. Nor should we forget the self-denial and hardships of the women and children who toiled at unaccustomed labours at home, that husbands, brothers, and fathers might be free to fight for their country. But, as is often the case, loss was not without gain. Patriotic spirit was greatly strengthened by the glorious part that Canadians had taken in a war wholly unprovoked, so far as they were concerned. For the first time,

perhaps, the colonists of the various provinces thought of themselves as one people, as they stood shoulder to shoulder against a common foe. It is worthy of note that a scheme for the confederation of British North America was laid before the British government in the last year of the war by JUDGE SEWELL, the chief-justice of Lower Canada.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXV

1. **The Campaign of 1814 in the centre.**
   - *a.* The British under Riall defeated at Chippewa by the Americans.
   - *b.* The American invasion turned back at Lundy's Lane by Sir Gordon Drummond.
   - *c.* The British repulsed in their attempt to regain Fort Erie.
2. **The Campaign of 1814 in the east.**
   - *a.* Invasion of New York by Prevost.
   - *b.* The defeat of the British fleet on Lake Champlain at Plattsburg.
   - *c.* Prevost withdraws his army from American territory without fighting.
3. **The Treaty of Ghent, December, 1814.**

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Describe in your own words the battle of Lundy's Lane.
2. Make a list of the British and of the American victories during the war.
3. Name the notable leaders on each side.
4. What were the effects of the war upon Canada?

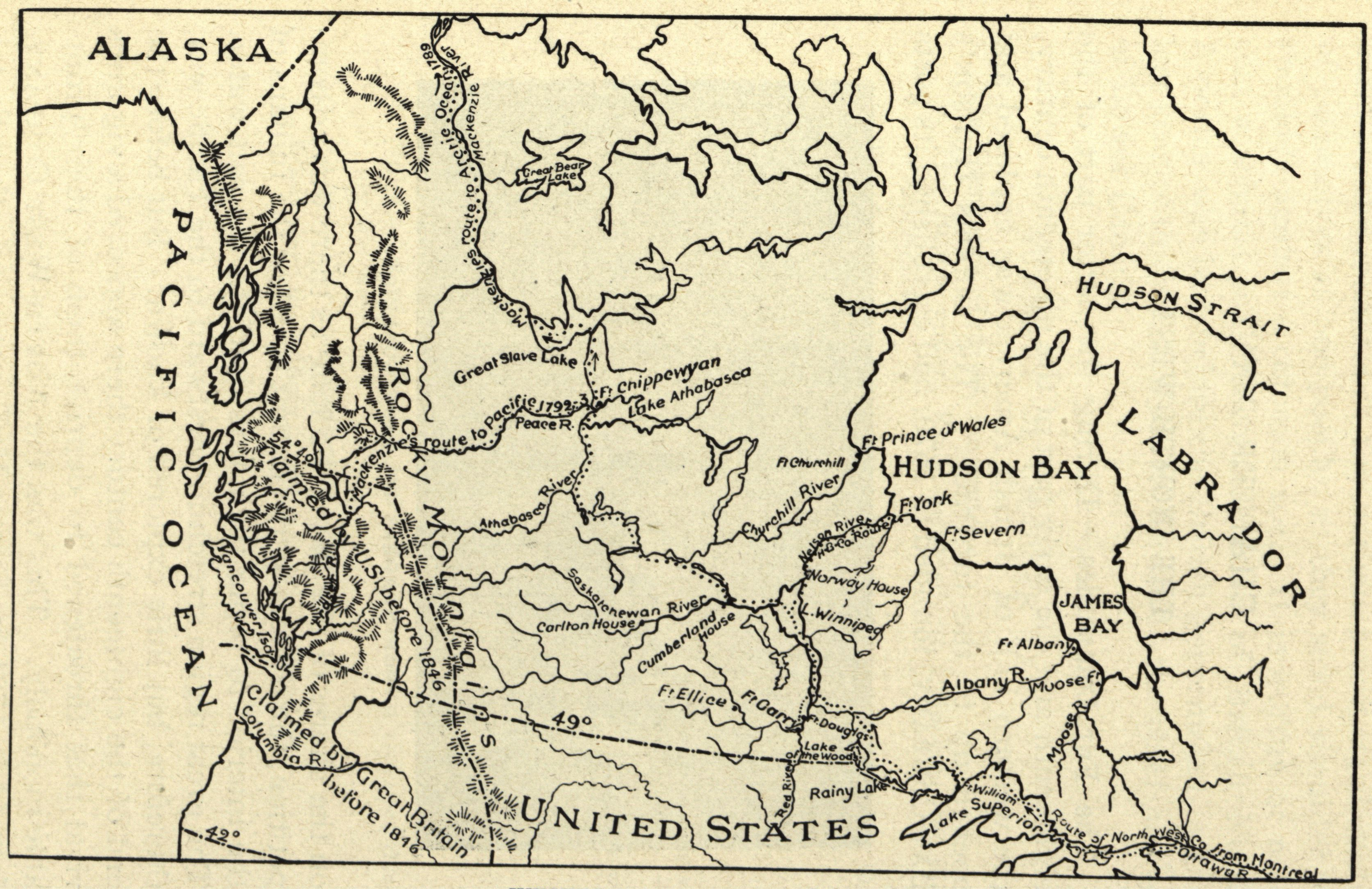
CHAPTER XXVI

THE NORTH-WEST

The Fur Companies.—During the latter part of the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth century, the western half of British America was explored and opened up to the fur-trade. The famous HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY, founded in 1670, had established its posts

FUR TRADERS ON LAKE SUPERIOR.

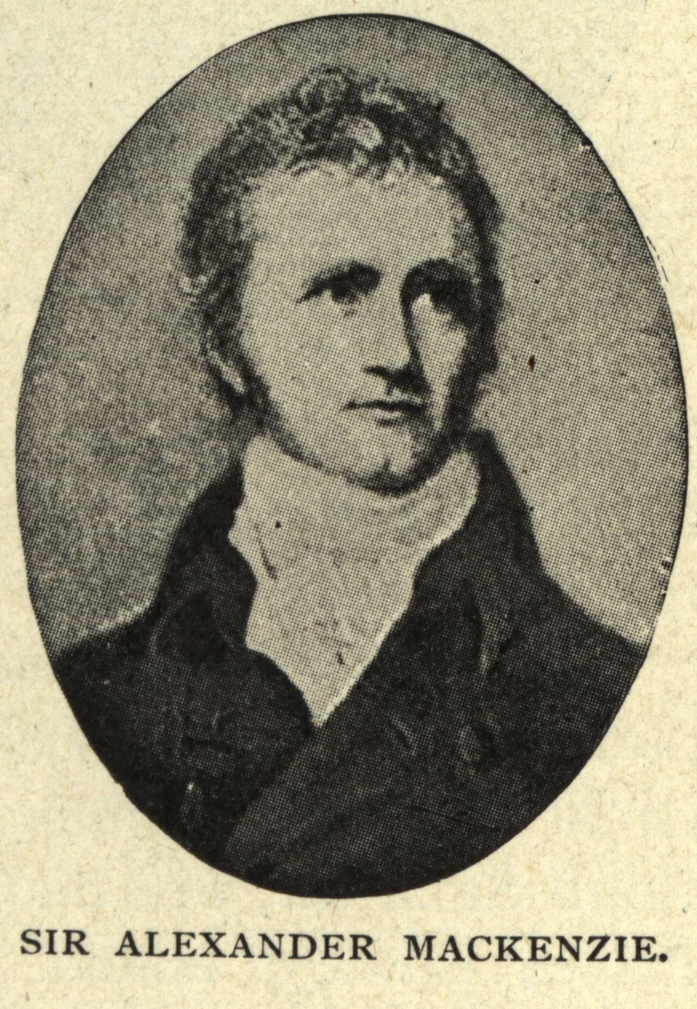
on the shores of the Bay. So long as there was no competition, the traders were content to allow the Indians of the interior to bring their furs down to the salt water. The great region stretching westward to the Pacific was, therefore, but little explored or known. But before the end of the eighteenth century there appeared a vigorous rival that threatened to deprive them of their profitable monopoly. This was the NORTH-WEST COMPANY, formed in 1784 by SIMON MCTAVISH and other Scotch



WESTERN CANADA TO 1869.

merchants who had settled in Montreal. Employing French Canadians and the half-breed descendants of the old *coureurs-de-bois* as canoemen, these traders reached the west by way of the Ottawa and Lake Superior. So rapidly were their operations extended that before the end of the century their posts dotted the region drained by the Red, Saskatchewan and Athabasca rivers. Furs to the annual value of £120,000 were collected at Fort William on Lake Superior, and thence were carried to Montreal for shipment to England. The partners of the North-West Company soon became very wealthy, and for many years exercised a commanding influence in the commercial and political affairs of Canada.

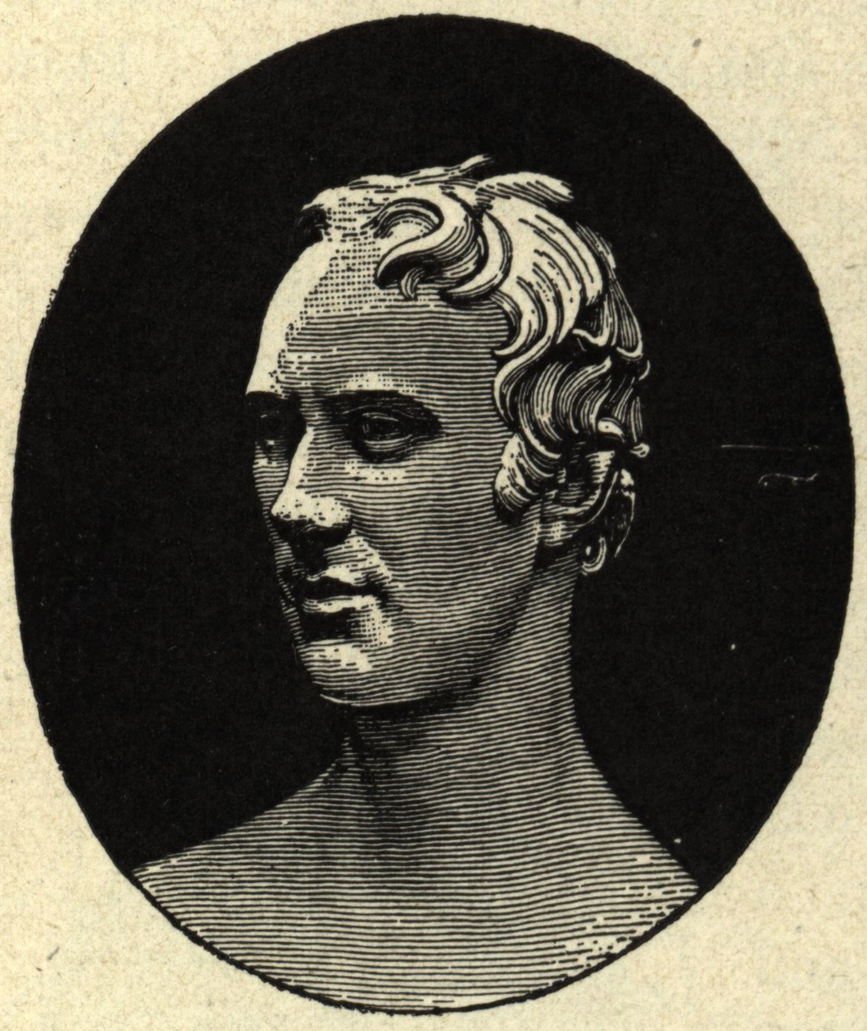
Exploration.—The "Nor'-Westers," as these traders were called, were eager to explore and to occupy the regions of the far North and West. One of them was ALEXANDER MACKENZIE, a man of bold, resolute and enterprising temper. In 1789 he started from Fort Chippewyan on Lake Athabasca with a party of thirteen, and made a six weeks' voyage to the Arctic Ocean down the great river which now bears his name. In 1792-93 he pushed his way up the Peace River, through the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific. He was thus the first white man to cross the main body of the continent from ocean to ocean.



SIR ALEXANDER MACKENZIE.

Other expeditions were sent to open up the country west of the Rocky Mountains to the fur-trade. In 1808

SIMON FRASER, encountering great difficulties and dangers, traced the course of a large river to the sea and named it after himself. DAVID THOMPSON, a surveyor in the employ of the company, spent some years on the upper Columbia and in 1811 descended the river to its mouth, where he found a band of traders from the United States already established. The North-West Company gathered a rich harvest of furs from this far western region and sent two or three ship-loads a year to England by way of Cape Horn.



LORD SELKIRK.

The success of the new company spurred on the old to greater efforts. They, too, established their stations everywhere in the interior, and everywhere the rival traders were to be found out-bidding each other for the furs of the Indians.

The Red River Settlement.—Reports of these explorations in the North-West attracted much attention in Great Britain. Among those deeply interested was LORD SELKIRK, who had already sent a Scotch colony to Prince Edward Island. He now obtained from the Hudson's Bay Company, in which he had become a large shareholder, an extensive grant of land in the Red River valley. Thither he sent, by way of Hudson's Bay, a small band of settlers who reached their destination in 1812. Other parties followed, the total

number being about three hundred. The colonists received ample farms of the rich lands lying along the river, and, although they were better supplied with arms than with farming tools, in due time they dotted the prairie green with tiny patches of brown—the first of the famous wheat-fields of the North-West. For the protection of the little settlement a strong stockade fort was built on the river bank a short distance below the North-West post at the mouth of the Assiniboine. It was called FORT DOUGLAS from the family name of the patron of the colony.

WINTER TRAVEL IN THE NORTH-WEST.

The Hostility of the Nor'-Westers.—Selkirk's enterprise met with determined opposition from the North-West Company. Being the first to occupy the Red River country for trading purposes, they denied the right of the Hudson's Bay Company to dispose of lands there, or of Lord Selkirk to establish a colony. The policy of the Nor'-Westers was, therefore, to harass the settlers in every possible way. They threatened them with death at the hands of the Indians. They induced the greater part of them to desert the colony and seek safer homes in Upper Canada. Both parties resorted to violence, and seized each other's posts and

stores. At last in 1816, a force of half-breeds in the employ of the Nor'-Westers attacked the colonists and killed Semple, the governor, and twenty others. The rest retired northwards to the outlet of Lake Winnipeg.

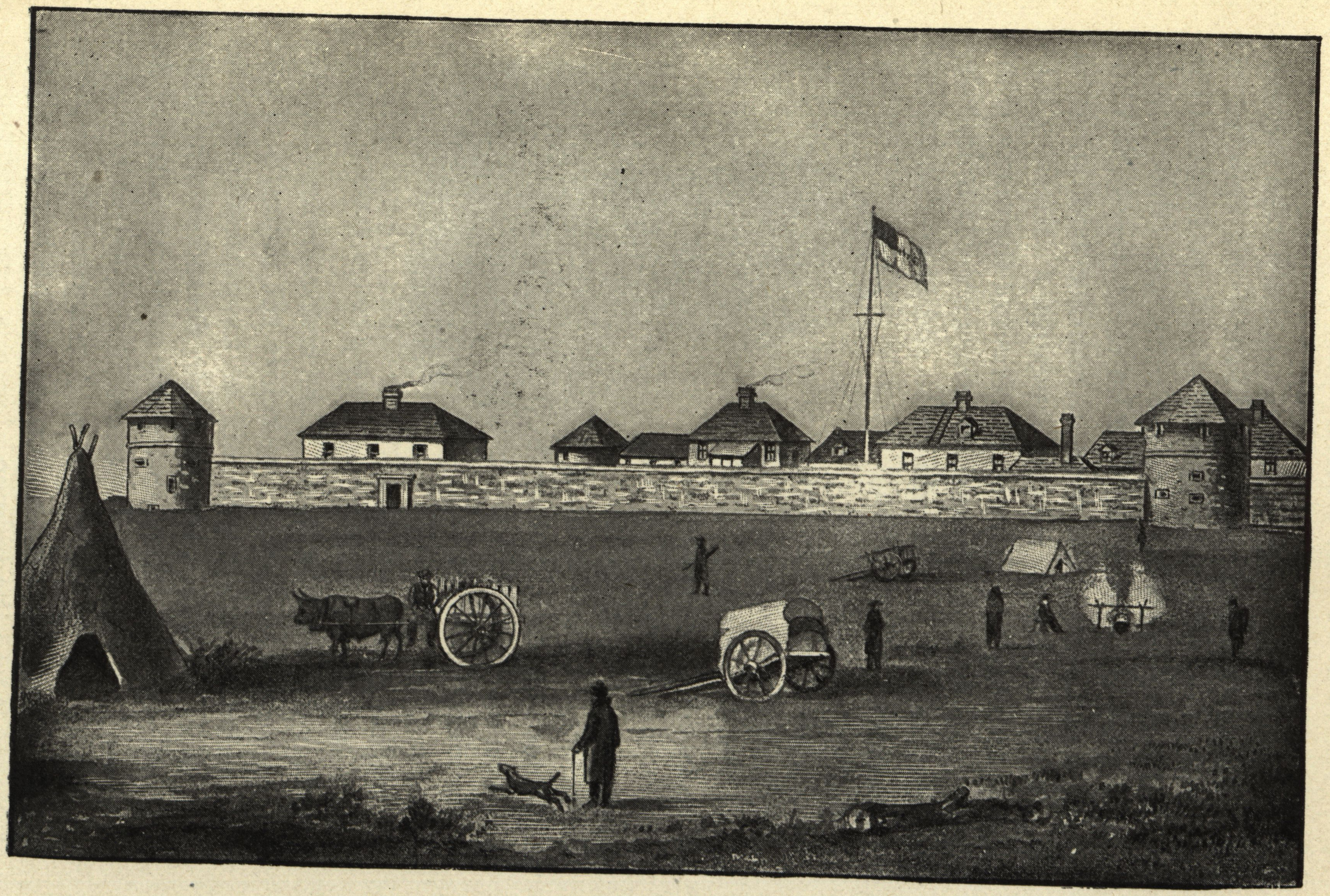
Selkirk's Authority Restored.—When the news of this disaster reached Lord Selkirk he was on his way from Canada with a reinforcement of a hundred disbanded soldiers for his colony. He seized Fort William, arrested the North-West partners there and sent them under guard to Montreal. With the rest of his party he proceeded to the Red River, collected the surviving settlers, and reorganized the colony. Commissioners representing the British government arrived about the same time and prevented the renewal of hostilities between the two parties. On returning to Canada, Lord Selkirk found himself involved in costly lawsuits with the North-West Company over his actions at Fort William. So powerful was the influence of the latter that he was condemned to pay heavy damages, while those who were put on trial for their share in the slaughter of the colonists escaped without punishment. Disgusted at this miscarriage of justice, as he considered it, Selkirk left Canada and died soon afterwards.

The Colony under the United Company.—The rival companies were by this time heartily weary of the reckless competition which had brought both to the verge of ruin. In 1821 the two were combined under the name of the older company. The Red River colonists were thus secure from further persecution. For some years they remained under the care of the Selkirk family, until the estate was resold to the Hudson's Bay Company. The latter maintained a firm hold on all matters of trade, both with the Indians and with the outside world. Immigration was stopped as injurious to the fur trade,

so that the English population grew slowly. An increasing number of half-breeds, however — the children of white fathers and Indian mothers—took up lands in the region and built their rude cabins thereon. Such rough farming as was done they left to their wives and children, and spent their time in hunting buffalo, or in trading and carrying for the Company.

The Fur-Trade.—The first governor of the united company was GEORGE SIMPSON, afterwards knighted by Queen Victoria. Under his able and energetic rule of forty years, the fur-trade was conducted by very much more economical and business-like methods, and the Company enjoyed a long period of great prosperity. Its operations extended from Vancouver Island and Alaska to Labrador. In that vast region it maintained more than one hundred and fifty posts, and traded with more than one hundred and fifty thousand Indians. The traffic in liquor, which had wrought great mischief before the union, was now discontinued. By appointing as its representatives at the various posts men of high character who were required to deal fairly and justly with the natives, the Company won their confidence and good-will, and it is indeed worthy of note that during the two hundred years of their relations no serious trouble has ever arisen between it and the redmen.

SIR GEORGE SIMPSON.



FORT GARRY.

After the union of the companies most of the fur of the North-West was shipped by way of Hudson Bay. The most important port was Fort York, at the mouth of the Nelson. It presented a busy scene in early summer as fleet after fleet of boats arrived, bearing the winter's catch of furs, and manned by crews of hardy French-Canadians or wild half-breeds. Here they met the ships from England and were soon on the return voyage laden with guns, knives, hatchets, traps, kettles, blankets and other objects of Indian desire. These cargoes were carried to NORWAY HOUSE at the outlet of Lake Winnipeg, or to FORT GARRY, built in 1821 at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine. At these points the goods would be distributed by canoes over the many waterways which interlaced the country, or by trains of carts over the wide prairies to the distant posts of the North and West. In winter goods were carried in sleighs drawn by trains of dogs. So far distant, indeed, were some of these, and so great were the difficulties to be overcome in reaching them, that nine years often elapsed between the shipment of merchandise to them from London and the receipt of the furs for which it had been exchanged.

A RED RIVER CART.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXVI

1. **The Old Hudson's Bay Company.**
2. **The North-West Company.**
   - *a.* Its organization by Simon McTavish.
   - *b.* The rapid extension of its trade.
   - *c.* Exploration by its agents—Mackenzie, Fraser, Thompson.
3. **The Red River Settlement.**
   - *a.* Its founding by Lord Selkirk.
   - *b.* The hostility of N.-W. Co. towards it.
   - *c.* The quarrels of Lord Selkirk and the N.-W. Co.
4. **The union of the rival companies into the new H. B. Co.**
   - *a.* Progress of the Red River Settlement.
   - *b.* Prosperity of the H. B. Co. under Sir George Simpson.
   - *c.* Description of its fur-trade.

General Questions

1. Trace the route by which the furs of the North-West Company were carried to England.
2. Give an account of Lord Selkirk and his colony.
3. Why was the North-West Company so bitterly opposed to the Red River Settlement?
4. How did the North-West Company benefit Canada?
5. Describe in your own words the fur-trade as carried on after the union of the companies.

Part VI.—The Struggle for Self-Government

CHAPTER XXVII

THE WORKING OF THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

Discontent.—The political strife which had been stopped by the war with the United States was revived soon after the return of peace. The grievances of the people which caused it were much the same in all the provinces. They complained that public affairs were managed with a total disregard of their wishes. The provincial governments were in form like that of the mother country, but in their working they were quite different.

The Government of Great Britain.—The people of Great Britain had already gained that political freedom which they now enjoy. They now control law-making and taxation, because they elect the members of the Commons, the more powerful of the Houses of Parliament. Through the House of Commons they control the Executive whose duty it is to enforce the laws and expend the public money voted by parliament. The king remains the nominal head of the executive, but he acts only on the advice of his council or Cabinet. The real head of this body is the Prime Minister, the leader of the party which for the time is supported by a majority of the House of Commons. The other members of the cabinet are chosen, with the king's approval, by the prime minister from the members of his party in parliament. For their advice to the king, for their expenditure of public

money, for all of their acts, the members of the cabinet are responsible to parliament. Should they forfeit the confidence of parliament the king must find other advisers who possess it. The House of Commons can always compel the cabinet to resign by refusing to grant them the ordinary supplies of money. Now, as the House of Commons is elected for a period not longer than seven years, it is plain that the government of the country cannot long be carried on in a manner contrary to the wishes of the people.

The Provincial Governments.—In Canada the crown, through its representative the governor, still retained greater power than in the mother country, there being no prime minister to share it. He was responsible only to the British government, whose ideas of Canadian affairs often differed from those of the Canadian people.

The members of the executive council were appointed by the governor and held their positions for life. When a new governor arrived he was ignorant of Canadian affairs, and was usually guided by the advice of his council. From among their friends he chose the legislative councillors, judges, magistrates and other officials. A strong party thus grew up, the members of which were closely united with one another by social and political ties. In Upper Canada it was called THE FAMILY COMPACT, and the term soon extended to the other provinces, for the conditions were everywhere much the same.

The Rule of the Family Compacts.—This party controlled the executive and legislative councils and usually had the support of the governor. It was independent of the assembly, since the salaries of the officials were paid from revenues in the hands of the executive, such as the proceeds from the sale of public lands, and the import duties levied by the British government. The

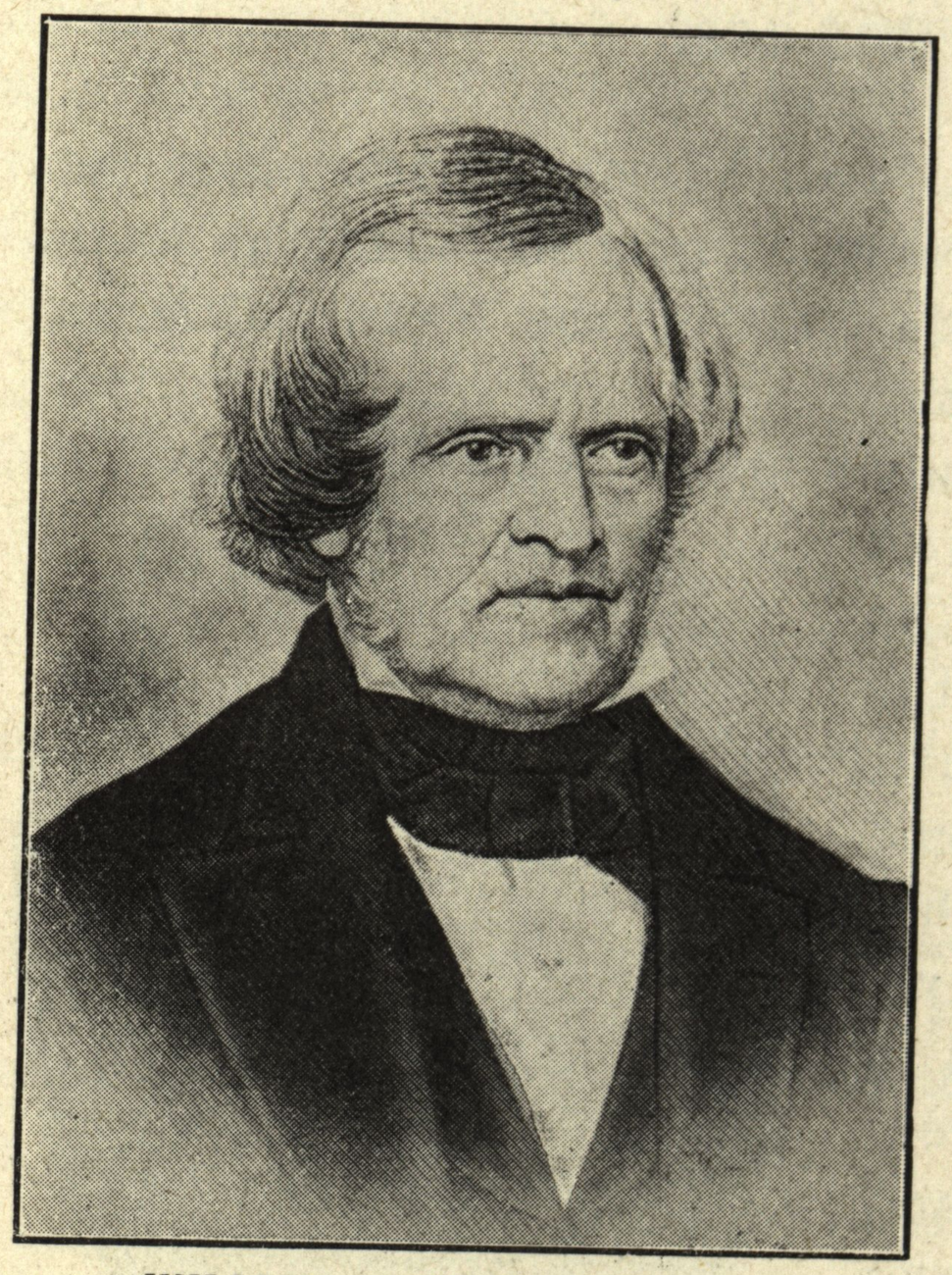
money raised by vote of the assembly was spent on roads, bridges and other public works. If the supply were stopped, it was the people rather than the officials who suffered. For many years no account of the expenditure of public money could be obtained from the officials by the assembly.

Many abuses crept into such a system of government. The money of the people was often carelessly spent, and sometimes corruptly. Public lands were granted to the officials and their friends, or sold at prices far below those required of others. Those who criticized such acts or opposed the authorities called down upon themselves the wrath of the government and often severe punishment.

The Reformers and their Demands.—The harsh rule of the Family Compacts stirred up strong opposition among the people. The REFORMERS, as they called themselves, insisted that the country would never be properly governed until the people could control the executive. They demanded that the officials should be responsible for their acts to the assembly, retaining their offices only so long as they possessed its confidence; that they could spend no public money except by vote of the assembly; and that they be compelled to return exact account of their expenditure. It was of little practical advantage to the popular party that they were usually able to secure control of the assembly, as measures of reform passed there were generally rejected by the official party in the legislative council.

The Attitude of the Colonial Office.—There remained for the Reformers only the hope of obtaining redress of their grievances through an appeal to the Colonial Office in London. Now, while the British government was most anxious that the colonists should be ruled justly

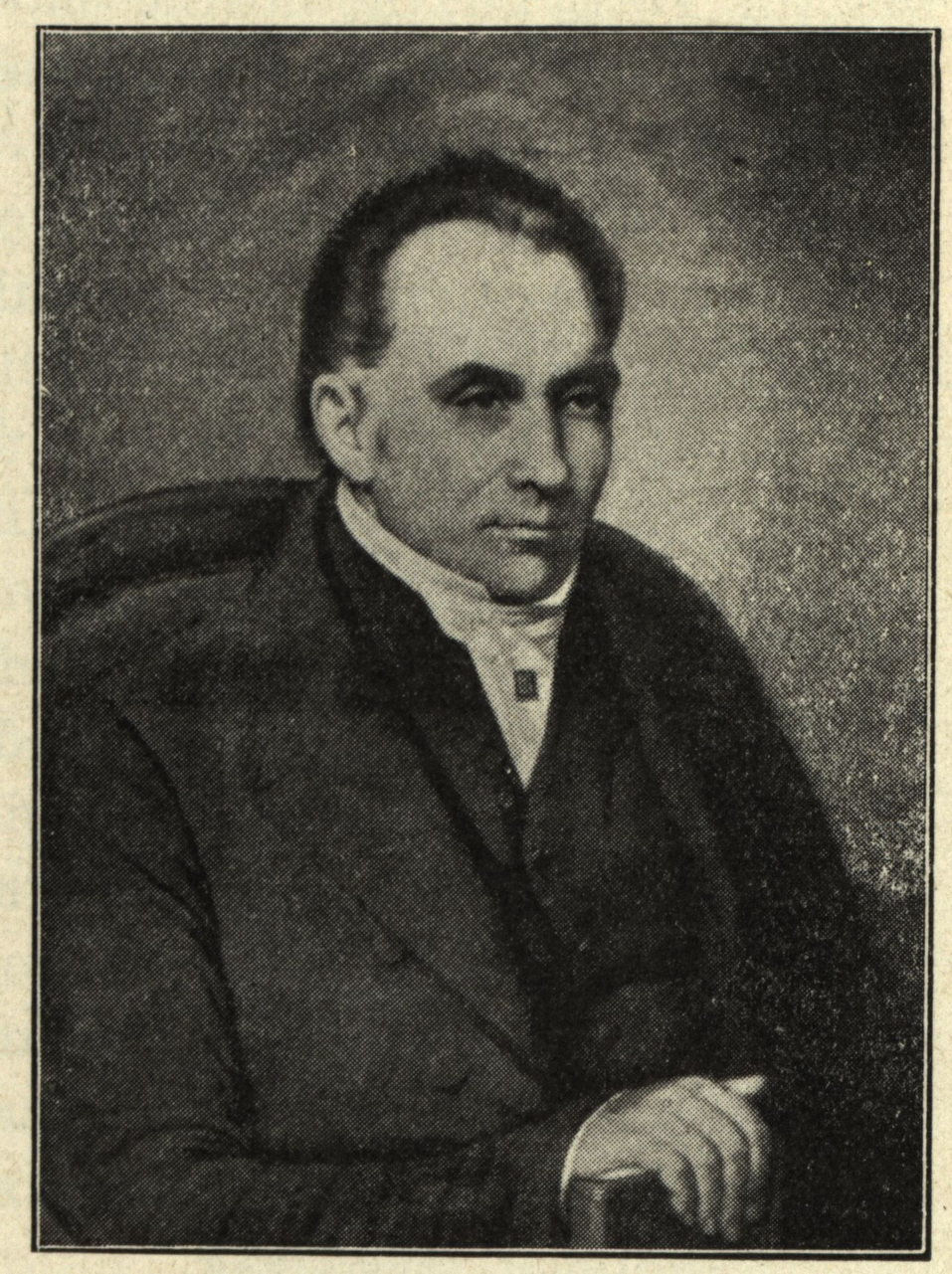
untiring in his efforts to promote the interests of his own Church, to which most of the Family Compact belonged, and it was mainly through his influence that all other denominations were for many years excluded from any share in the Clergy Reserves. This policy aroused much bitter feeling and was one of the causes of the rebellion in 1837.



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE.

Reform Leaders.— The rule of the Family Compact soon roused angry criticism. In 1817 a recent immigrant from Scotland, ROBERT GOURLAY by name, laid bare the abuses of the time and called a meeting of the people to petition the Crown to have them removed. The executive were furious. They caused a law to be passed declaring such meetings illegal. They charged Gourlay with libel, that is, with making false statements about themselves. He was twice arrested and tried, and twice acquitted. Then, under a law hitherto enforced only in time of war, and against foreigners, he was condemned by a jury of adherents of the Family Compact as being a man dangerous to the safety of the country. After a year's imprisonment he was banished from Canada, broken down in body and mind.

The fate of Gourlay, and similar instances of official harshness, increased rather than diminished opposition to the government. A successor to Gourlay appeared in WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE. He was the publisher of a newspaper, the *Colonial Advocate*. So sharp and persistent were his attacks upon the officials and their doings that a number of their young friends and relatives broke into his office at York, smashed the printing press and threw the type into the bay. For this lawless act they were tried and condemned to pay Mackenzie a large sum for damages. In 1828 he was elected to the assembly. His industry and energy, his fearlessness in exposing the shortcomings of the executive soon won for him a leading position in the Reform party. His lack of self-control and of sound judgment, however, allowed him to say and do many things better left unsaid and undone, and thus diminished his influence for good.



ROBERT BALDWIN.

More moderate in his views and loftier in character, but more retiring in disposition than Mackenzie, was ROBERT BALDWIN, whose political power was of slower growth.

and honestly, it was not yet willing to extend to them the same measure of political power that the British people enjoyed. It thought that if the governor and his executive were made responsible to the provincial parliament rather than to the Colonial Office, each colony would be practically independent, and would soon separate itself from the mother land. The official party in Canada professed the same opinion; while the Reformers insisted that if the people more largely controlled the government, they would be better satisfied and, therefore, more loyal to the Empire.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXVII

1. **The contrast between government of mother country and government of provinces—**
   the former controlled by the people,
   the latter controlled by the governor and his executive council irrespective of the wishes of the people.
2. **The Family Compacts and their misrule.**
3. **The Demands of the Reformers.**
   a. The executive council to be responsible to the assembly.
   b. The assembly to control the supplies of public money and to receive accounts of its expenditure.
4. **The British government usually inclined to support the provincial governments in their struggles with the Reformers.**

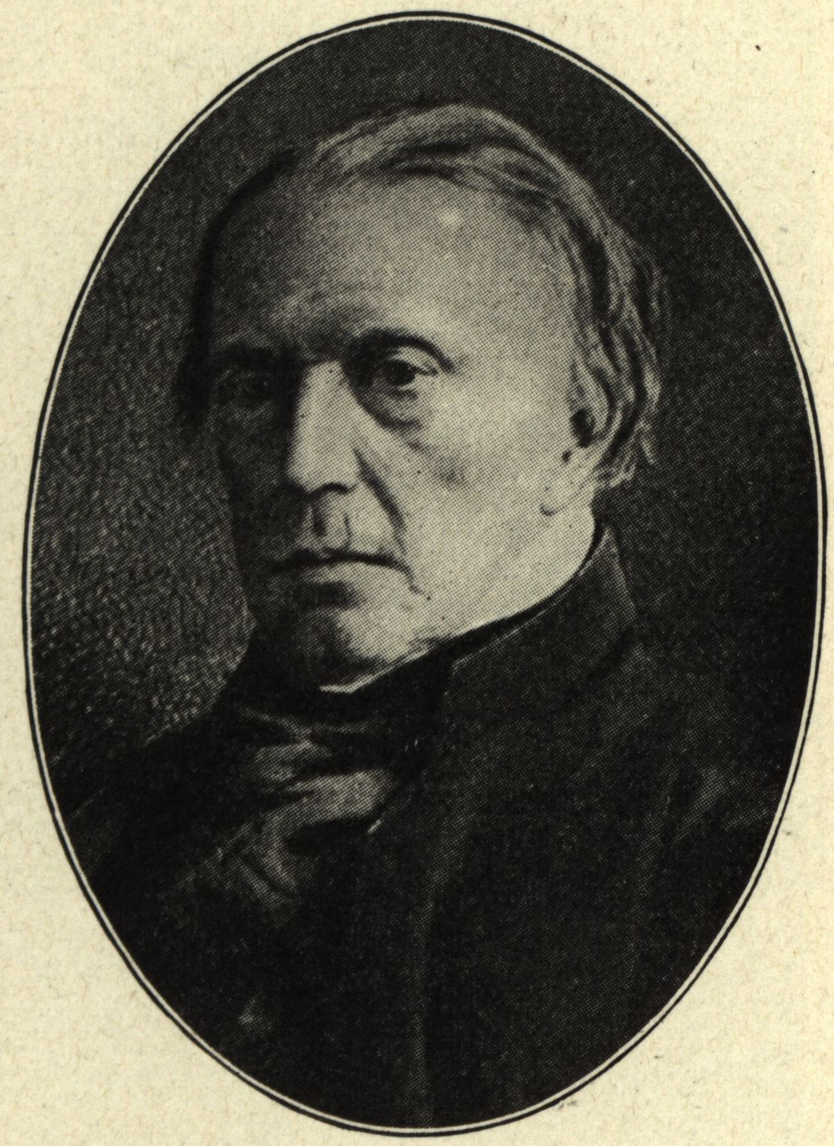
GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by *public business?*
2. Explain the terms *executive, prime minister, parliament.*
3. Name the governor and the prime minister of the Dominion; of your province.
4. Why were abuses likely to grow out of governments like that of the Family Compact?
5. Why was the British government inclined to sympathize with the Family Compacts rather than with the Reformers?

CHAPTER XXVIII

POLITICAL AGITATION IN UPPER CANADA, 1815–1837

The Family Compact. — In Upper Canada party passions were not aggravated by race jealousies as in the lower province, but the rule of the Family Compact was no less abitrary and unpopular. Many of its members were of Loyalist families, as staunch upholders of the authority of the Crown as in the days of old. Some were retired officers who, after the war, had received grants of land in Canada. Others were officials from England who owed their places not so much to their own merits as to the influence of friends at home. Many of the party were men of education and ability, and all of them considered themselves as quite above the common people.



BISHOP STRACHAN.

Prominent among them was Attorney-General ROBINSON, afterwards chief justice, and long an active member of the executive council. A man of even greater ability was DR. STRACHAN, the leading Episcopal clergyman of the province, and afterwards Bishop of Toronto. He held a seat in both councils. He was

Conflicts in the Assembly.—In the elections of 1824 the Reformers gained for the first time a majority in the assembly. They carried many proposals to improve the government of the province, only to have them defeated in the legislative council or vetoed by Sir John Colborne, the lieutenant-governor, whose sympathies were with the ruling party.

Becoming discouraged, the Reformers relaxed their efforts, and the Family Compact gained control of the new house in 1830. Baldwin, Rolph and several other Reform leaders were defeated. Mackenzie retained his seat for York, but the hostile majority soon took steps to deprive him of it. He was accused of libelling members of the house in his paper, and was expelled. Three times he was re-elected by the people of York, only to be rejected as often by the assembly. Such persecution made him more of a popular hero than ever. The Reformers sent him to England to present to the Crown their petitions for the redress of grievances. On his return he was elected the first mayor of Toronto, as York was named when it became a city.

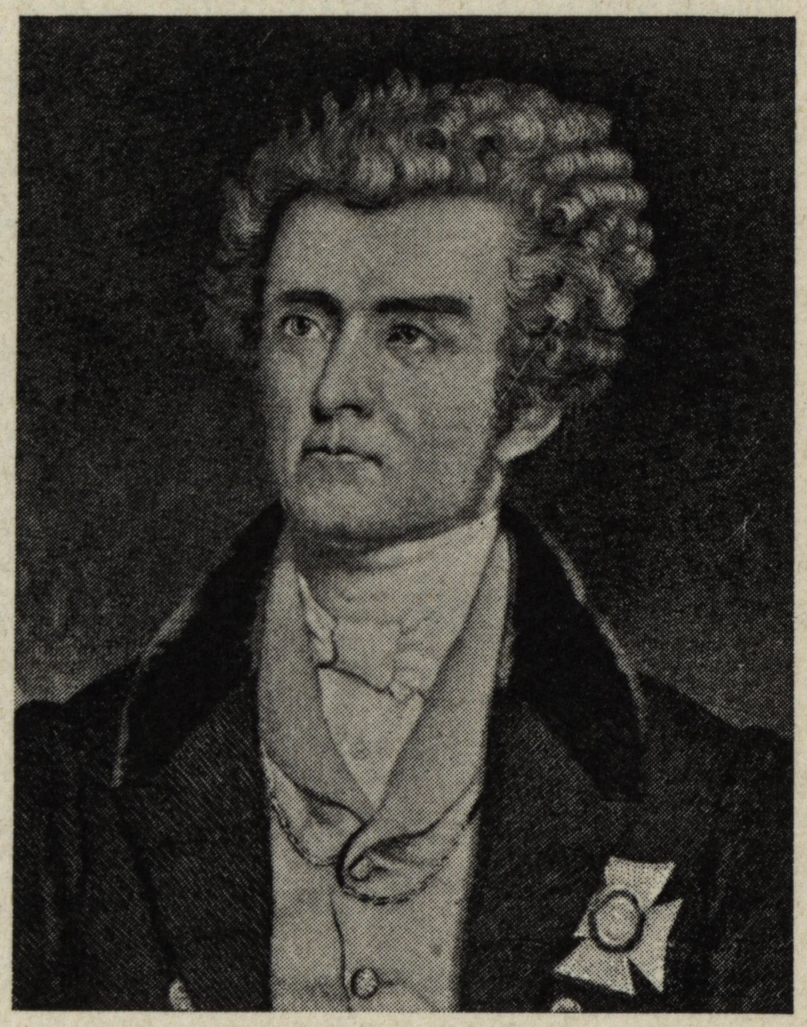
The election of 1834 resulted in a victory for the popular party. But the Family Compact were too strongly entrenched in power to be greatly affected. For the preceding assembly, unlike that of Lower Canada, had granted a permanent *Civil List*, as the amount required for officials' salaries is called, when the British government had conceded the control of money supplies.

An Appeal to England.—The majority in the assembly, however, prepared a document, usually called The Seventh Grievance Report, in which the defects of the provincial government were very fully stated. The greatest stress was laid on the necessity of making the

executive responsible to the popular house, if the Colonial Office wished to remove the discontent of the people.

Lord Glenelg, the colonial secretary, returned an answer similar to that given about the same time to the assembly of the lower province through Lord Gosford. No concession was made to the principle of responsible government, but reforms were promised on less important points. In order that these might be more readily carried out, Sir John Colborne was recalled. Before leaving the province, he roused a storm of anger among the Reformers by taking seventeen thousand acres of the much-discussed Clergy Reserves to endow forty-four rectories of the Episcopal Church.

Head and his Policy.—The new governor, Sir Francis Bond Head, arrived at Toronto early in 1836. He had been described as "a tried reformer," and as such was welcomed by the Reform party. Their hopes, however, were doomed to bitter disappointment. In accordance with his instructions to make the executive council more popular, he gave seats to three leading Reformers. But it was soon evident that he had no intention of accepting their advice. They resigned and the governor filled their places with members of the Family Compact, with which party he now identified himself. The assembly followed the example of that of Lower



SIR FRANCIS BOND HEAD.

Canada and refused to vote the ordinary supplies. Head promptly dissolved it.

The governor did a most unusual thing in taking an active part in the elections himself—contrary, in fact, to his instructions from the Colonial Office. He conceived a violent hatred towards the Reform party. The reckless talk of Mackenzie and the publication of a letter from Papineau, favouring a republican form of government, gave him a pretext for declaring the whole party disloyal. A vote for their candidates, he said, was a vote against Britain. The great majority of the Reformers were devotedly loyal to the mother country, believing that in time she would see that justice was done. Many were misled by the governor's cry. Some voted for the official party, some did not vote at all. In many other ways the whole power of the government was unfairly and corruptly exerted. The result was a crushing defeat for the Reformers, and in the new assembly they were out-numbered more than two to one.

Mackenzie's Designs.—Mackenzie and the extreme party now came to the conclusion that further agitation of a peaceful nature was useless. Embittered by injustice and defeat, they joined hands with Papineau and began to plot a revolution. Men like Baldwin would have nothing to do with such a course. But Mackenzie traversed the province during the summer and gained a number of adherents to his cause. The scheme was to gather four thousand men, seize the arms in Toronto, capture the governor and reorganize the government. What made the plan seem possible was the dispatch of all troops to Lower Canada by the governor, who, like his advisers, refused to believe there was any danger of a rising in the upper province. But before

continuing the story of the outbreak there, we must note the progress of events in the lower province, where a still more violent storm has been brewing.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXVIII

1. **The Family Compact.**
   Its power and leaders.
2. **Leaders of opposition to rule of Family Compact.**
   a. Robert Gourlay,—
      his agitation against government;
      his punishment.
   b. W. L. Mackenzie,—
      his newspaper office attacked by friends of Family Compact;
      his activity in the assembly;
      his expulsion from the assembly
   c. Robert Baldwin,—
      compared with Mackenzie.
3. **Appeal of the Reformers to British Government.**
   a. The "Seventh Grievance Report."
   b. Concessions promised by Lord Glenelg.
4. **The Governorship of Sir Francis Bond Head.**
   a. Reformers summoned to council, but not consulted.
   b. Favour shown Family Compact.
   c. Governor helps that party win elections of 1836.
5. **Mackenzie and the extreme Reformers plot a revolution, 1837.**

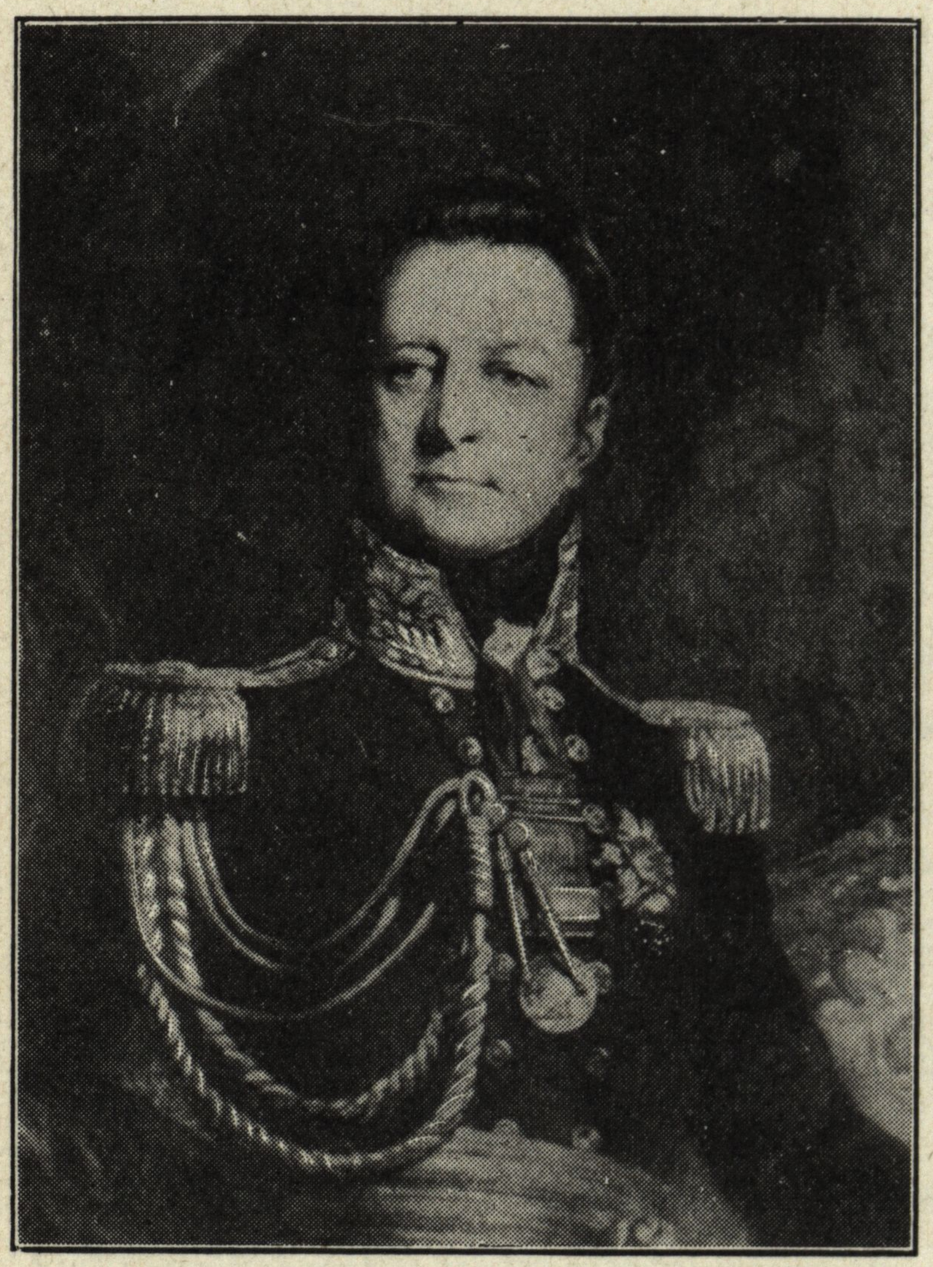
General Questions

1. Describe the rule of the Family Compact in Upper Canada, giving instances of its harshness.
2. Name the chief leaders of the rival parties in Upper Canada.

CHAPTER XXIX

POLITICAL AGITATION IN LOWER CANADA, 1815–1837

Governors.—By the Constitutional Act the governor of Lower Canada was given a general oversight of the affairs of the other provinces, with the title of Governor-General. After the recall of Prevost the position was filled by SIR JOHN SHERBROOKE, and then by the DUKE OF RICHMOND. The latter died from the effects of the bite of a pet fox while on a tour through Upper Canada. He was succeeded in 1820 by the EARL OF DALHOUSIE, who had already served as governor of Nova Scotia.

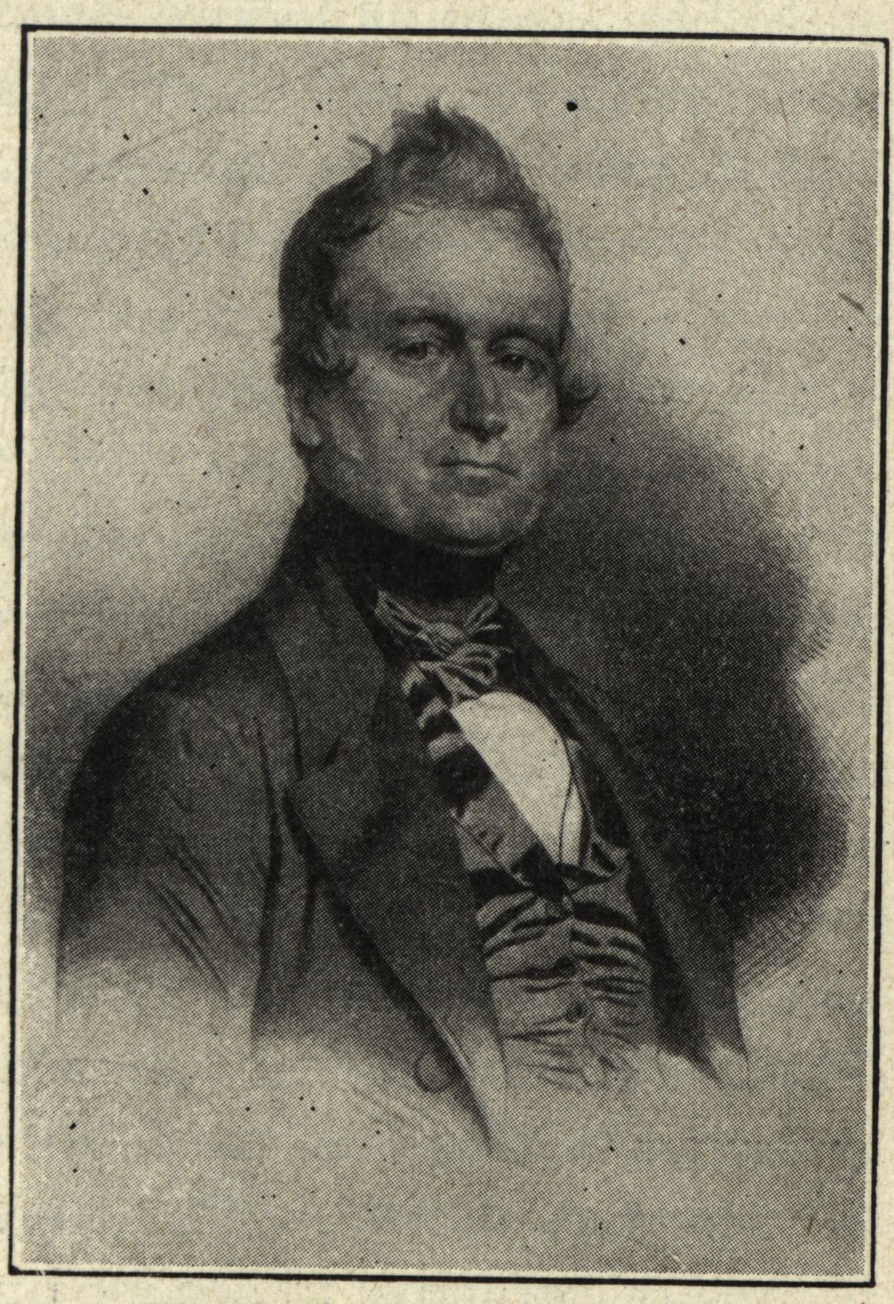


EARL OF DALHOUSIE.

Political Strife.—Lord Dalhousie was a soldier, and thought it his duty to rule with a soldier's firmness. The old quarrel between the official party of the assembly now became as bitter as in the days of Sir James Craig.

The Civil List, the amount required for the salaries of the various officials, had grown greater than the

amount of revenue controlled by the executive. The assembly was unwilling to vote additional sums, unless it were given control of all the revenues. It urged that the salaries were altogether too high, and it made frequent attempts to reduce them. The judges still remained in the councils in spite of the protests of the Reformers, who thought that their judgments would command more respect if they took no part in politics.



LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU.

Conflict of Races. — The bitterness of party quarrels was intensified by the jealousy of the two races. The French majority were the more eager for reform, inasmuch as the officials and the two councils were almost wholly of British origin, and they now demanded that the legislative council be made elective so that they might control it as well as the assembly. The British population, on the other hand, were the more ready to resist change lest the triumph of the Reformers should result in the complete supremacy of the French. Yet there were always some of the English-speaking members of the assembly in alliance with the French. Prominent among them were JOHN NEILSON, editor of the *Quebec Gazette*, and DR. WOLFRED NELSON.

Papineau.—The leader of the French Reformers was a young lawyer of much ability, Louis Joseph Papineau. He was somewhat vain and excitable in temper, but his fine appearance, pleasing manners and ready eloquence gave him great influence over his countrymen. For many years he was chosen speaker of the assembly.

Dalhousie and the Assembly.—In 1825 it was discovered that Sir John Caldwell, the treasurer of the province, had borrowed nearly £100,000 of the public funds, had used the money in private speculations and was now unable to repay it. This loss would never have occurred, the Reformers argued, if expenditure were dependent on the vote of the assembly, and if the treasurer were compelled to render yearly accounts of money spent. Lord Dalhousie declined to make any changes, however, and when the assembly refused to vote supplies in 1827, he promptly dissolved it. The elections increased the strength of the popular party. Papineau, who had bitterly assailed the governor in his speeches throughout the country, was re-elected speaker by the new house. The governor took the unusual course of refusing to accept him.

Concessions by British Government.—To soothe the angry feelings in the province, the British government recalled Lord Dalhousie, and instructed his successor, Sir James Kempt, to follow a more conciliatory course. He confirmed the election of Papineau to the speakership, and restored to their places the militia officers who had been dismissed by Dalhousie for advising their men not to attend drill. For the time party passions subsided.

In 1828 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine into Canadian grievances. It recommended that the assembly should be given control of all public revenues, except the small amount

derived from the sale of public lands and retained for the payment of judges, on condition that the salaries of the governor-general and other officials should be guaranteed, as was the Civil List in England. It suggested that the judges should be removed from the councils, and that their places there should be filled by men in whom the majority had confidence. The more radical changes in the constitution of the councils demanded by the assembly were refused.

The Reformers divided — Supplies refused. — In 1830 LORD AYLMER arrived as successor to Sir James Kempt. In opening the legislature he announced that the government would hand over the control of supplies, trusting that the assembly would respond with the guarantee of a permanent Civil List. Moderate Reformers were ready to accept the offer, believing that the executive would now be dependent on the assembly, and that other reforms would be made in time. The extreme party, on the other hand, would be content with nothing short of their total demands. Under the leadership of Papineau they refused to vote any supply for the civil list. In 1834 their grievances were expressed in the famous NINETY-TWO RESOLUTIONS of the assembly, which were carried to England by a special agent. These contained a long protest against "the injustice and oppression to which the people were subjected," and hinted at rebellion unless redress were granted by the British government.

The violence of Papineau's language in these resolutions and in his speeches aroused the alarm of moderate men. Neilson and other reformers of British origin withdrew their support, believing that he was aiming at the establishment of a French-Canadian republic. Nevertheless, in the elections which were held soon

after, the candidates of the extreme party were almost everywhere victorious.

Gosford's failure.—In 1835 the British government made another effort to calm the storm that was rising in Canada. LORD GOSFORD was appointed governor-general and head of a commission to examine and report upon the political condition of the province. He was prepared to yield many points, but was forbidden by his instructions to concede an elective legislative council, as dangerous to the interests of the British party in the province, and as opposed to the British system of government. On this demand the French majority in the assembly insisted, and refused to vote supplies or to transact business until it was granted.

Interference by British Government. — Lord Gosford reported against radical changes, and laid the blame of the deadlock on the assembly. The unpaid salaries of officials now amounted to £142,000. In March, 1837, LORD JOHN RUSSELL, the Colonial Secretary, introduced a bill into the House of Commons authorizing the governor to draw that amount from the provincial treasury without vote of the assembly. The bill, supported by both parties, quickly became law.

Approaching Rebellion.—The news of this act produced the greatest excitement throughout the province. Public meetings were everywhere held. Papineau, Nelson, and others denounced the British government and counselled the people to resist its authority. Societies called "SONS OF LIBERTY" were organized for military drill. Magistrates and other officials not in sympathy with the designs of Papineau were in many places compelled to resign their offices by threats of personal violence.

Meanwhile the loyal population were not idle. Great meetings were held in Montreal and Quebec, and

resolutions were passed assuring the young Queen Victoria, who had lately ascended the throne, of their loyalty and devotion. Troops were gathered from Upper Canada and the Maritime Provinces. The Roman Catholic clergy issued a proclamation impressing upon the people the duty of obedience to the law and the dangers of their present conduct. All warnings, however, were unheeded by many of the ignorant *habitants*, who believed their leaders' assurance that the first uprising would establish a French republic on the banks of the St. Lawrence.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXIX

1. **Revival of political strife.**
   - *a.* Disputes over public revenues and constitution of councils.
   - *b.* Jealousy between the two races.
   - *c.* Quarrel between Lord Dalhousie and assembly.
2. **Concessions yielded by British government.**
   - *a.* Assembly to control revenues on guarantee of Civil List.
   - *b.* Compromise rejected by extreme Reformers.
   - *c.* The assembly passes "the ninety-two resolutions" of complaint, and refuses to vote supplies.
3. **Lord Gosford reports to British government against further concessions.**
4. **British government authorizes governor to pay arrears in salaries without vote of assembly.**

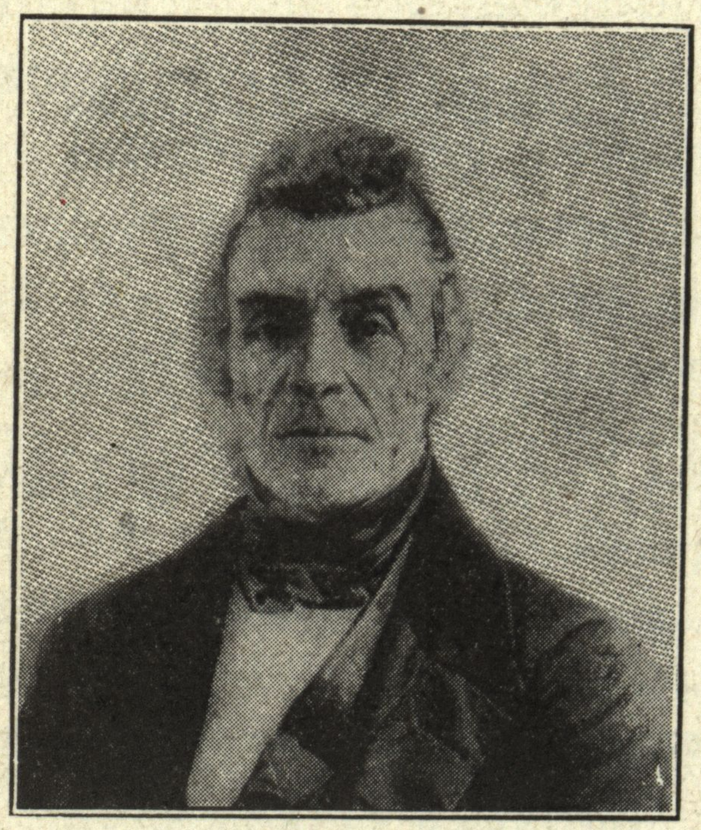
General Questions

1. What rendered political strife in Lower Canada so bitter?
2. Why did the Reformers demand that the legislative council should be elective?
3. What is meant by the *Civil List*?
4. Why would not extreme Reformers guarantee a civil list?
5. What was the effect of the payment of arrears in officials' salaries without vote of the assembly?
6. In what way did Sir Francis Bond Head help to cause an outbreak?
7. Write an account in your own words of the cause of the rebellion.

CHAPTER XXX

THE REBELLION OF 1837

The Outbreak in Lower Canada.—The movement in the lower province reached a crisis in November. On the 6th a street fight took place in Montreal between the "Sons of Liberty" and members of the Doric Club, a loyal organization. On the 18th two political prisoners who were being taken to Montreal by a small guard of soldiers were rescued near Longueuil by a body of several hundred armed *habitants*. By this time the whole Richelieu district was ready for revolt and the *habitants* were beginning to gather at various points along the river.



DR. WOLFRED NELSON.

St. Denis. — Warrants were issued for the arrest of the leaders. Papineau fled from Montreal to St. Denis, where Dr. Nelson lived, and where there was already a considerable force collected. Sir John Colborne, who had been appointed commander-in-chief after his departure from Upper Canada, sent Col. Gore with two hundred and fifty men to seize the rebel chiefs and to disperse their followers. Starting from Sorel on the evening of the 22nd, this force marched all night more than twenty miles through mud and sleet, and reached the village early next morning. Although his men were weary and hungry, Gore at once

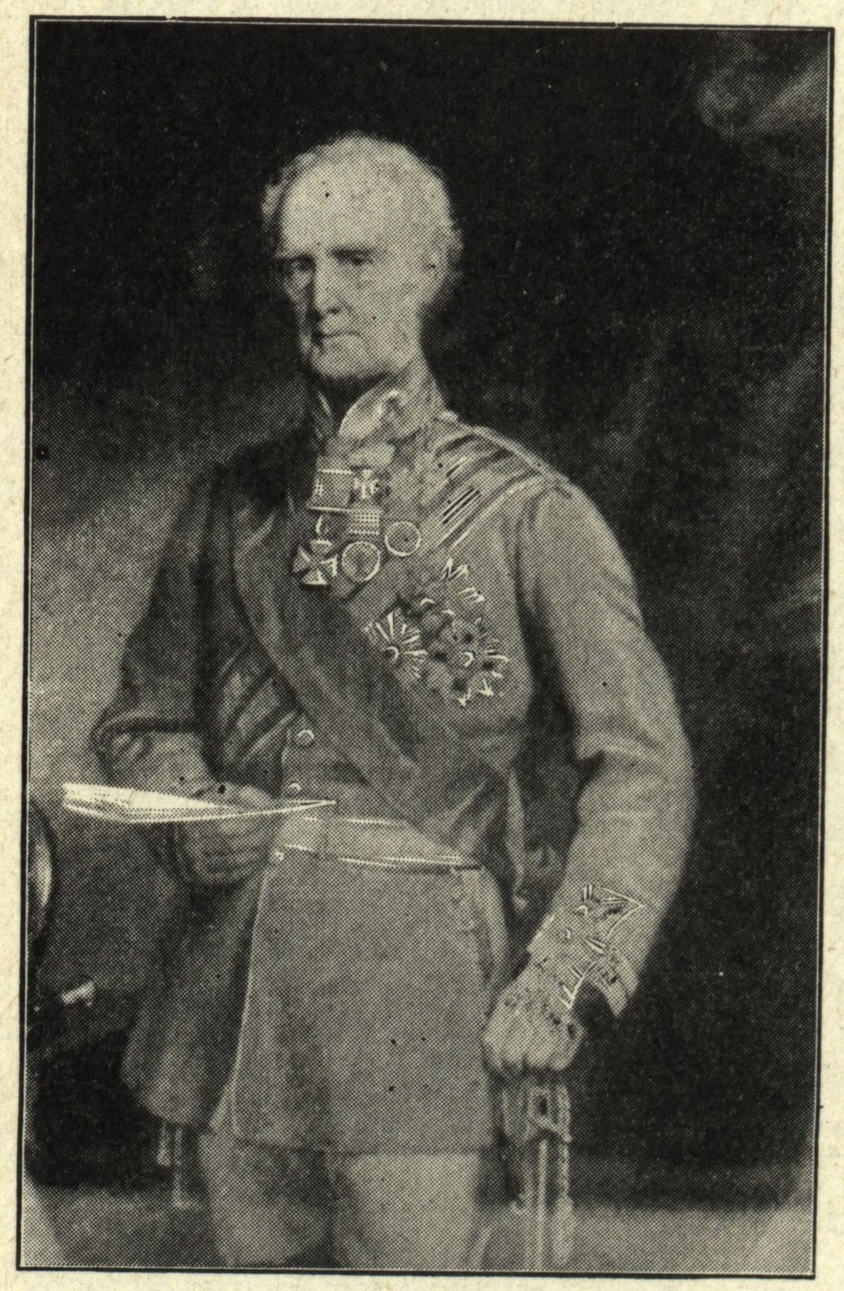
attacked the rebels, who, with Nelson in command, were strongly posted in a large stone building. Its walls were stout enough to resist the shot of the one small cannon which the troops had brought. After an engagement of four hours' duration the ammunition of the soldiers was exhausted and the order was given to retreat. Papineau took no part in the fight, and shortly after its commencement fled to St. Hyacinthe. In a few days he made his way to the United States.

St. Charles.—On the Richelieu, six miles above St. Denis, was the village of St. Charles, another rallying point for the rebels. Here they were attacked on the 26th of November by a force from Chambly under COL. WETHERALL. Their leader, BROWN, showed little of the courage and skill of Nelson, and the undisciplined and half-armed farmers were soon put to flight by the cannon and the bayonets of the regular soldiers. When Wetherall advanced to St. Denis he found the place deserted. The rebellion on the Richelieu was over. Nelson attempted to reach the United States, but, after suffering great hardships, was captured and lodged in the Montreal jail.

St. Eustache.—The news of Nelson's success at St. Denis excited a rising in the district north of Montreal, where the followers of Papineau were very numerous. Crowds poured into the village of St. Eustache. They did not drill, or fortify their position in any way; and we are told that "their sole occupation was to steal, eat, drink, dance and quarrel."

Grossly exaggerated reports of their numbers reached Montreal, and Colborne did not venture to attack them until he had gathered two thousand men, a force large enough to crush a far stronger enemy. When he approached St. Eustache on Dec. 14th, most of the

rebels fled. The remainder, under the command of DR. CHENIER, took post in the church and the neighbouring houses. Here they bravely defended themselves for a time; but when the buildings were set on fire by Colborne's cannon, they were driven out, and their leader and many others were shot in trying to escape. There was no further resistance to the authority of government in the province for a year.



SIR JOHN COLBORNE.

The Rising in Upper Canada. — Mackenzie had planned his attack upon Toronto for Dec. 7th, and for some weeks previous was in the country districts, rousing the people to take part in it. Meanwhile rumours of the intended movement began to get abroad. Dr. Rolph, one of the prominent leaders in the secret, altered the date to the 4th, lest the governor should at last be alarmed into making some preparations for the defence of the capital. This change wrought confusion in the plans of the insurgents, and at the appointed time barely a hundred were gathered at Montgomery's tavern, a few miles north of Toronto.

The Attempt on Toronto.—During the next day the number of the rebels was largely increased, and in the evening they made an attempt to enter the city, where there was now the greatest alarm and excitement. But

a single volley fired by a few volunteers hidden behind a fence put them to flight, and, in spite of the efforts of their leaders, they did not halt until Montgomery's tavern was again reached. The insurgents were greatly depressed by this reverse, for they had been assured by Mackenzie that success could be won without the firing of a shot.

Loyal volunteers were now flocking into the city. Col. Fitzgibbon, the hero of Beaver Dams, was placed in command. On the 7th he marched out against the rebels with a thousand men. Little resistance was offered and the rebels were again scattered in headlong flight. Mackenzie and some of his lieutenants reached the United States in safety; others fell into the hands of the loyalists.

Navy Island and the Steamer Caroline.—Whatever sympathy may be felt for the rebels in their ill-fated rising, Mackenzie's further schemes deserve none. Although it should have been clear to him that the continuation of fighting would only discredit the cause of reform and injure its supporters, he seems to have looked for substantial aid from the United States. As soon as he reached Buffalo, he issued a Proclamation of Independence for Upper Canada, and offered a hundred dollars and three hundred acres of land to all who would aid him in his enterprise. By such inducements he gathered a band of American sympathizers, most of them disreputable characters, and on Dec. 18th took possession of the British territory of NAVY ISLAND in the Niagara River.

A strong force of militia under COL. ALLAN MACNAB was soon collected on the Canadian shore to meet the expected invaders. The "Patriots," as they called themselves, secured the American steamer *Caroline* to

carry men and supplies to the island. On the night of the 29th MacNab sent a party in boats to capture her. She was found moored to the wharf on the American side of the river. The Canadians, having driven the crew on shore, towed her into the stream and set her on fire. For this daring act MacNab was made a baronet by the British government. It created great indignation in the United States, however, and at one time seemed likely to cause war between the two countries.

Heavy cannon were now placed in position to rake Navy Island with their fire, and the Patriots, finding their position untenable, dispersed.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXX

1. **The rebellion of 1837 in Lower Canada.**
   - *a.* Riot in Montreal.
   - *b.* Actions at St. Denis, St. Charles, and St. Eustache.
2. **The rising in Upper Canada.**
   - *a.* Gathering at Montgomery's tavern to attack Toronto.
   - *b.* Defeat of the rebels.
   - *c.* Mackenzie's followers collect at Navy Island.
   - *d.* The burning of their steamer, the *Caroline*.

General Questions

1. Name the most prominent leaders of the rebellion of 1837.
2. What did the rebels hope to achieve by their rising?
3. What reasons had they for expecting success?
4. What men took an active part in crushing the rebellion?
5. Make a list of the chief events of the rebellion.

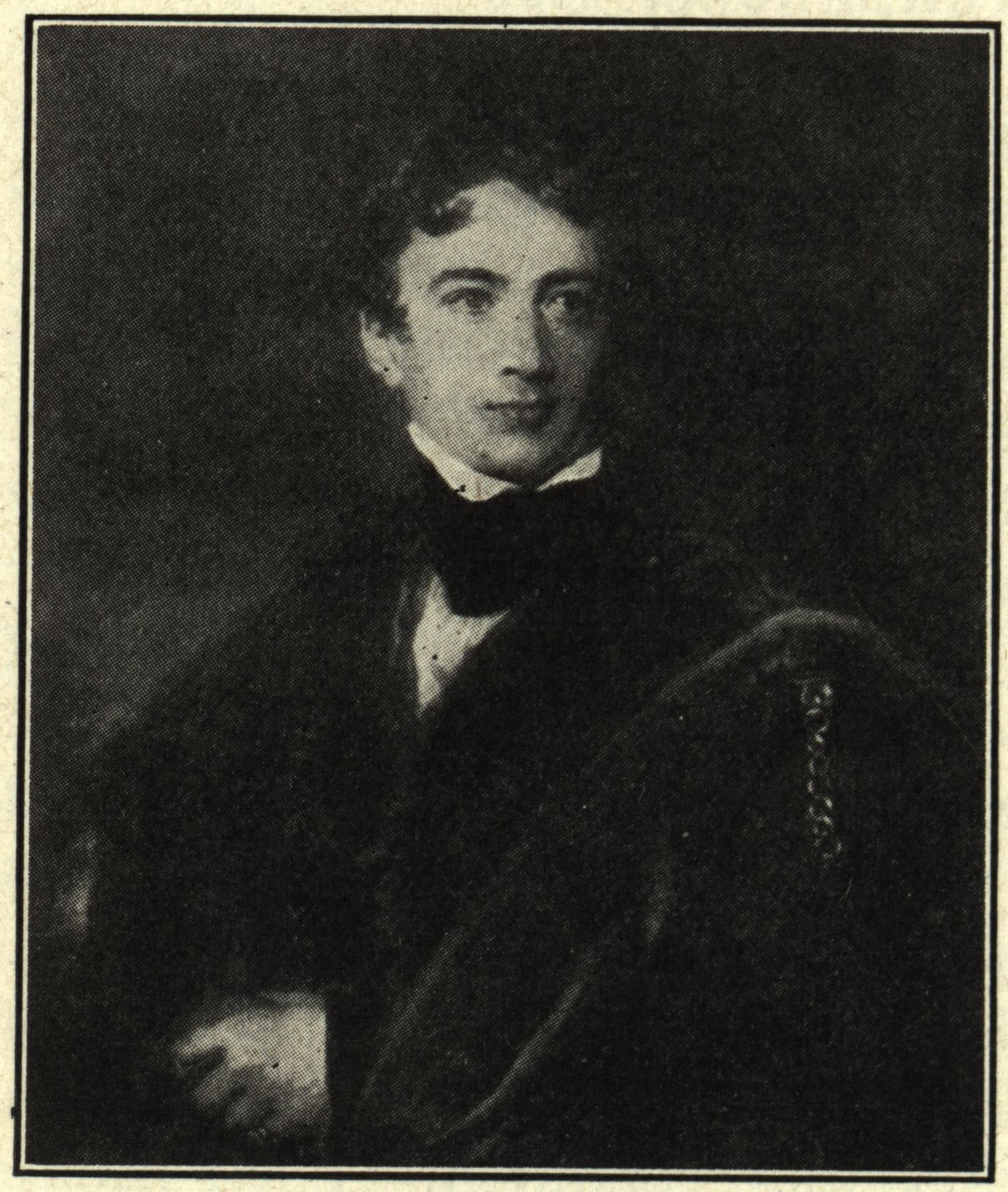
CHAPTER XXXI

LORD DURHAM'S MISSION — FURTHER DISTURBANCES, 1838

The British Government Aroused.—The rebellion of 1837 was crushed easily yet not without considerable loss of property and life. In so far as it aimed at the overthrow of the sovereignty of Great Britain in Canada, it was a complete failure. But most of those who took part, in Upper Canada at least, wished only to overthrow the power of the Family Compact. Hitherto that power had been supported by the Colonial Office in spite of the protests of the popular party. But the eyes of the British government were at last opened to the depth and extent of discontent in Canada. They saw that something must be done to retain the loyalty of the people.

Lord Durham.—The cabinet decided to send a High Commissioner to assume the governorship of Canada and to report upon its political condition. Their choice was Lord Durham, a nobleman of high rank and great wealth. He was a strong supporter of the Liberals, or the reforming party, and had taken an active part in carrying through the British parliament the great Reform Act which gave the middle class a controlling voice in public affairs. He was not a popular man, however, for his bearing was haughty and his temper irritable. But whatever may have been his faults of manner, there can be no question of his clearsightedness, and his earnest devotion to duty. He was the first of British statesmen to understand the real needs of Canada, and he laboured incessantly to promote the

best interests of her people during the few months that he spent in the country. The new governor-general arrived at Quebec in May, 1838, accompanied by a numerous staff of secretaries and attendants. The constitution of Lower Canada having been suspended since the outbreak of the rebellion, he appointed a Special Council to assist him. Most of its members were unconnected with either of the political parties in the province.



LORD DURHAM.

Political Prisoners. — One of the most important matters in Lower Canada to engage the attention of the new government was the disposal of the political prisoners, with whom the jails were overflowing. One or two cases had already proved that these would never be convicted by a jury of their countrymen, however clear might be the evidence of guilt. Durham thought it unwise to allow all rebels to go unpunished. Pardoning the common prisoners, he forbade Papineau and other leaders, who had fled from the province, to return on pain of death; and, with their own consent, banished Nelson and seven others to Bermuda. Banishment was probably the wisest course under the circumstances, but it was certainly beyond

the legal powers of the governor-general. The act was sharply attacked by his many personal enemies in the British parliament; and the government, fearing their own overthrow on the question, disallowed it.

Durham's Departure.—When this news reached Canada, Durham at once resigned his office and shortly afterwards returned to England, complaining bitterly of his lack of support from the government. The apparent failure of his mission was a keen disappointment to those who were hoping for the dawn of brighter days for Canada.

The Second Rebellion in Lower Canada.—Lord Durham's departure was the signal for another rising. During the autumn secret societies called HUNTERS' LODGES were organized in the lower province and along the American frontier to fight for the independence of Canada. On the 4th of November a party marched from Beauharnois to seize the arms at the Indian village of CAUGHNAWAGA; but the loyal inhabitants sallied forth, beat them off and took a number of prisoners. The rest of the rebels made their way to NAPIERVILLE. Here ROBERT NELSON, brother of the leader at St. Denis, raised the flag of the new republic, of which he was to be the president, promising the abolition of church tithes and seigniorial dues. Great numbers rallied to his support and were supplied with arms smuggled in from the United States. But when Colborne advanced from Montreal with a strong force of regulars, the rebels retired southward towards the frontier. Their way was barred at ODELLTOWN by a small force of local volunteers posted in a church which commanded the road. After a sharp fight Nelson found himself unable to force his way through, and his men scattered in all directions. When Colborne reached

Napierville next morning all was quiet, and the flame of the second rebellion had been extinguished as suddenly as it had blazed forth.

Frontier Raids.—For several weeks the borders of the western province were disturbed by bands of raiders more intent upon plunder for themselves than on freedom for the Canadians. One party under VON SHULTZ, a Pole, crossed the St. Lawrence to PRESCOTT, but were soon driven to take refuge in a stone windmill a short distance below the town. Here they defended themselves bravely until cannon were placed in position to batter the walls down. They then surrendered.

Several hundred men took possession of WINDSOR, opposite Detroit, and spread through the surrounding district, plundering and murdering. So bitter was the feeling of the people at such conduct that when Col. Prince of the militia defeated one of their parties, he immediately shot four of the prisoners taken. The remainder of the raiders quickly retired to American soil.

Punishment of Rebels.—In Upper Canada two of the rebel leaders, LOUNT and MATTHEWS, were executed for high treason, in spite of numerously signed petitions for mercy to SIR GEORGE ARTHUR, Head's successor. No one was thus punished in Lower Canada after the first rising, but it was now felt necessary to make an example of those who had abused the mercy of the government by taking a leading part in the second rebellion. A number of such were condemned to death by military courts, and others were transported to Australia. Von Shultz and some of his comrades were also executed.

Lord Durham's Report.—On Lord Durham's return to England he presented his report to the government. It traced in great detail the causes of the discontent so prevalent throughout Canada. This discontent could

be removed only by conducting the government in accordance with the wishes of the people in all matters of purely provincial concern, and by means of an executive in whom the representatives of the people had full confidence. In other words, the demand of the Reformers for RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT should be granted.

The report recommended the union of the Canadas as necessary to protect the interests of the British minority in the lower province, the hostility of the two races there being now more bitter than ever. Union would give the trade of Upper Canada free access to the sea, and so end the constant disputes between the two provinces over the division of import duties collected at Montreal. Lord Durham had at first favoured a union of all the provinces of British North America. But he soon found that more time was needed to remove the difficulties in the way of that great project, towards the success of which, however, the union of the Canadas would be an important step.

The author of this famous Report did not long survive its appearance. His death was hastened by his labours in Canada and by the harsh criticism of his actions there. But his dying hope, "The Canadians will one day do justice to my memory," has been fully realized. They all now regard his Report as the charter of their political liberties.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXI

1. **Lord Durham's mission, 1838.**
   - *a.* Durham's character.
   - *b.* His banishment of political leaders.
   - *c.* Disallowance of this act by British government.
   - *d.* Durham's resignation.

2. **Further disturbances in Lower Canada.**
   - *a.* Rising at Beauharnois and attack on Caughnawaga.
   - *b.* Robert Nelson leads revolt at Napierville.
   - *c.* His defeat at Odelltown.
3. **Frontier raids on Upper Canada.**
   - *a.* Von Shultz captured at Prescott.
   - *b.* Attack on Windsor.
4. **Punishment of Rebels.**
5. **Lord Durham's Report, advocating**
   - *a.* union of Upper and Lower Canada ;
   - *b.* the establishment of Responsible Government.

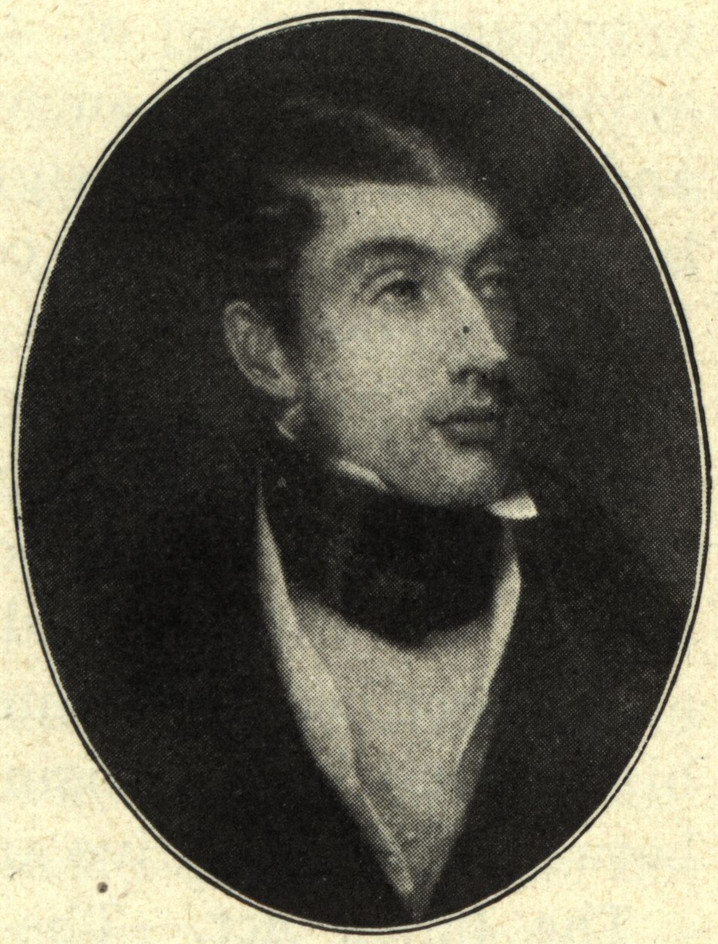
General Questions

1. Do you think the Canadian rebellion was justifiable? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Write in your own words an account of Lord Durham's mission.
3. What differences can you mention between the risings of 1837 and those of 1838?

CHAPTER XXXII

THE UNION ACT AND RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

A New Policy and a New Governor.—Although the British government had disapproved of Lord Durham's course in Canada, they accepted the recommendations of his report. They prepared a bill for the union of the Canadas; but, before passing it through the British parliament, they wished to secure for it the approval of the Canadians themselves. Sir John Colborne, the acting governor-general, was rather a soldier than statesman, and to carry out their new policy the government chose CHARLES POULETT THOMSON. Although still a young man, he was a prominent member of the cabinet and had a wide experience in public affairs. He had, too, the tact, patience and skill in managing men, in which Lord Durham had been so deficient.



CHARLES POULETT THOMSON, LORD SYDENHAM.

The new governor-general reached Canada late in 1839. He found the British of Lower Canada warmly in favour of the union. The French objected to it as a scheme which would deprive them of much of their political influence. It was passed, however, by the Special Council through which the province was still governed.

In Upper Canada the strong opposition of the Family Compact to the new policy was at length overcome by the governor's appeal to their boasted loyalty and devotion to the mother country.

Responsible Government granted.—While the parliament of Upper Canada was discussing this matter, Thomson laid before it his instructions from Lord John Russell, the Colonial Secretary, as to the future government of the united province. It was to be carried on as far as possible in accordance with the expressed wishes of the people. The governor's advisers must be such as enjoyed their confidence and esteem. The resignation of these advisers should be called for if their continuance in office prevented harmony between the executive and the assembly. The principle of responsible government was thus conceded. It was expressly stated, however, that the governor was responsible to the Colonial Office alone. He still retained much power in his own hands, and unless he were content to be guided by the advice of his council in exercising it, the possibility of conflict between the executive and the assembly remained.

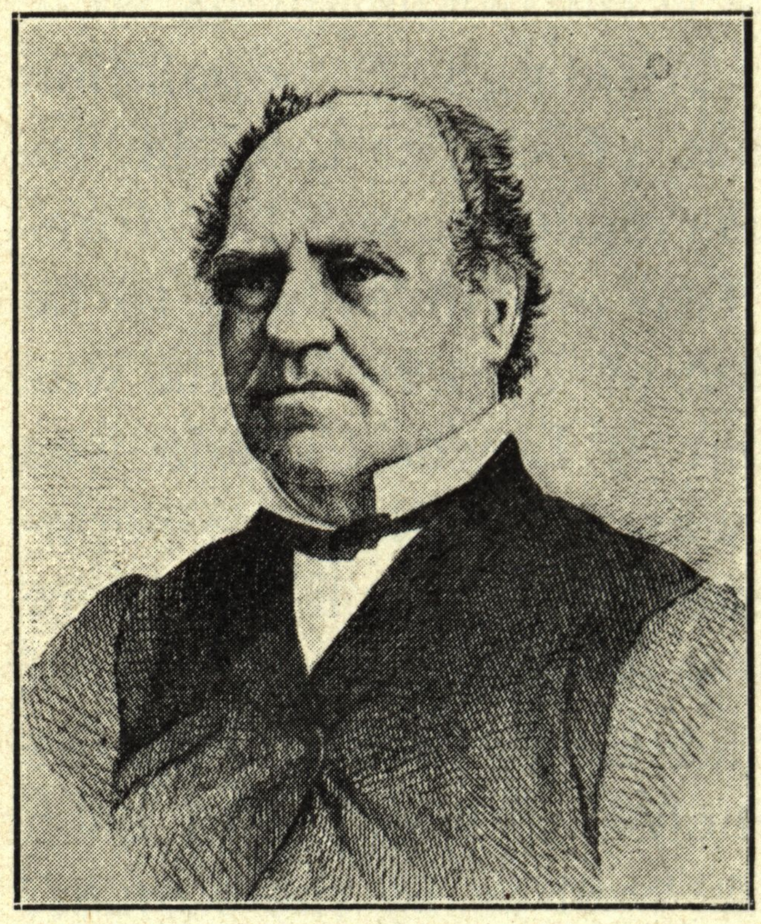
The Union Act.—The British parliament passed the Act for the union of the provinces in 1840. It was proclaimed in Canada in February, 1841, by the governor-general, now bearing the title of Lord Sydenham. It provided that the government of the united province should consist of (1) a governor-general appointed by the crown and assisted by an executive council, the members of which were to be chosen from the legislature; (2) a legislative council of at least twenty members appointed by the crown for life; (3) an assembly of eighty-four members elected in equal numbers from each province for a term of four years. All

public revenues were placed under the control of the assembly in return for a guaranteed Civil List of £75,000 a year.

The French party, who had strongly opposed the union in principle, complained that several of the terms were unfair to the lower province. Although its population was one-third greater than that of Upper Canada, its representation in parliament was made the same. Moreover the public debt of the two provinces was to be borne in common, although that of Upper Canada was more than £1,000,000 and that of Lower Canada was almost nothing. In reply, it was urged that the population of Upper Canada was increasing much the more rapidly; and that, if its debt was larger than that of Lower Canada, much of it had been incurred in the construction of canals the benefits of which had been shared by the latter province as well as by the former. The feeling of dissatisfaction, however, remained for years.

The Maritime Provinces.—The struggle for reform began later in the Maritime Provinces than in the Canadas. It was waged over the same questions, but not with the same passionate bitterness. At no time was there any tendency towards rebellion. The story of its progress in Nova Scotia is of special interest on account of the many able men who took part in it. Of these the most notable was JOSEPH HOWE, the son of a United Empire Loyalist. Public attention was first attracted to him by his successful defence of himself in a libel suit which had followed his charges of corruption against the magistrates who ruled Halifax in the interest of the "Family Compact." He was elected to the assembly in 1836 and became the leader of the Reform party there. He was as eloquent as Papineau, as zealous for reform

as Mackenzie, and was more moderate and statesman-like in temper than either. His ready wit, his kindliness and his ardent patriotism endeared him to the people of the province which he served for nearly forty years, and the name of "Joe Howe" is still remembered there with pride and affection.



JOSEPH HOWE.

Immediately after his election Howe proposed resolutions in the assembly attacking the council. This body was both legislative and executive, and conducted public business with closed doors in defiance of public opinion. The official party was too strong to be thus dislodged from their position. In 1837, however, the Colonial Office, in answer to the appeal of the assembly, promised to give it control of public revenues and to reform the council. Nevertheless these intentions were not carried out by the governor, SIR COLIN CAMPBELL, who upheld the Family Compact.

When Lord Russell's instructions to Thomson yielded responsible government to the Canadians, the Reformers of the Maritime Provinces insisted that the principle should be applied there as well. In New Brunswick Governor Harvey, the hero of Stoney Creek, gladly agreed, but official influence was strong even in the Assembly, and the proposal to adopt responsible government was defeated there in spite of the eloquence of L. A. WILMOT, the popular leader. The Reformers had to fight for many years before securing victory.

In Nova Scotia Sir Colin Campbell, quite satisfied with his present advisers, refused to make any change. A fierce political storm arose. The Reformers petitioned for the recall of the governor. The Colonial Office, anxious to remove grievances, sent LORD FALKLAND to replace him, with instructions to follow a more conciliatory policy. Like Lord Sydenham, he tried the experiment of uniting both parties in his executive council. This plan did not work well. Howe and Johnson, the rival leaders, differed on almost every public question. The governor sided with the latter, and Howe and his friends resigned office. In the elections of 1847 the Reformers secured a majority in the assembly. Harvey, who had succeeded Falkland, appointed a Reform executive with Howe a leading member. The principle of responsible government was thus fully established, never again to be questioned.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXII

1. **The Union of Upper and Lower Canada.**
   - *a.* Charles P. Thomson made governor-general.
   - *b.* He secures approval of union from provinces.
   - *c.* Union Act passed by British parliament.
2. **Lord Russell's instructions to governor-general concede principle of responsible government.**
3. **The struggle for responsible government in the Maritime Provinces.**

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Why did Durham urge the union of the Canadas?
2. Why did the French object to it?
3. Explain the meaning of the term *responsible government.*
4. How did the struggle for responsible government in the Maritime Provinces differ from that in the Canadas?

CHAPTER XXXIII

GENERAL PROGRESS

Growth of Population.—The half century preceding the union of the Canadas was marked by a rapid increase of population in all the provinces. We have already noted the first great movement of English-speaking people to British North America, that of the United Empire Loyalists in 1783 and 1784. Yet the population in 1791 was not much more than 200,000. In 1841 it amounted to 1,500,000 of whom 630,000 were in Lower Canada, 470,000 in Upper Canada, and about 400,000 in the Atlantic provinces.

Immigration from the United States.—From 1791 to the war of 1812, streams of settlers from the north-eastern states poured into Canada. Some of these, especially the first comers, were of Loyalist sympathies. Others were attracted from the sterile farms of New England by the offer of free grants of the rich lands of Canada. Many such moved northward from Vermont and New Hampshire and occupied that part of the "Eastern Townships" of Lower Canada which lies between the Richelieu and the St. Francis rivers.

Highland Settlers.—At the close of the eighteenth century the Highlands of Scotland contained a larger population than the barren soil could support in comfort. The landlords, moreover, found it more profitable to pasture sheep on their estates than to rent the land to tenant farmers. The latter were, therefore, turned from farms and compelled to seek a living elsewhere. As early as 1773 two hundred, sailing in the ship *Hector*

to Nova Scotia, found homes in the county of Pictou. At the beginning of the nineteenth century a great stream of immigration set in towards eastern Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, where the scenery reminded the Highlanders of their old homes, but where the soil yielded a much better return for their labour. During the next twenty-five years forty thousand of these hardy and thrifty people arrived. Their descendants form by far the largest proportion of the population in this part of the country.

Other Highland colonies were established in Prince Edward Island. The first of these parties, numbering eight hundred, was sent out in 1803 by Lord Selkirk, who was anxious to improve the condition of his poverty-stricken countrymen, and whose colonizing efforts in the North-West have already been described. Near their settlement has since arisen the city of Charlottetown, the capital of the province.

In the following year eleven hundred emigrants from the Western Highlands made their way to Upper Canada and settled on the banks of the St. Lawrence, where they found a considerable number of their fellow-countrymen. To the district around they gave the name of their old home, Glengarry. Many of these men had seen service in the British army, and when the war of 1812 broke out numbers enlisted again and, as we have seen, fought bravely in defence of the land of their new home.

"The great immigration."—For many years after the close of the wars with France and the United States the condition of the working-men of the British Isles was very serious. Taxation was high, work was scarce, wages were low and food was dear. Many sought to improve their fortunes by emigration. The British

government was willing to aid those seeking new homes in the colonies, if aid were needed, by providing a free passage, farming tools, and a year's supplies. Many others in better circumstances were brought out by emigration companies who obtained immense grants of land at low rates, on condition of the speedy settlement of them with colonists. Stimulated by such means, the emigration to Canada amounted to more than thirty

CANADIAN COSTUMES OF THE TIME.

(From an old print.)

thousand a year from 1826 until 1832, when the movement was checked by the epidemic of cholera which swept over the country. The political agitation and disturbances in the following years also had a restraining effect until after the union of 1841.

The greater number of these immigrants made their way to the upper province. Those who remained in Lower Canada generally avoided the French districts in the St. Lawrence plain, where lands could be held only under the French law of seigniorial tenure. They preferred to settle in remoter forest regions where free lands could be obtained. Between the years 1820 and 1830 many established themselves in the hilly country

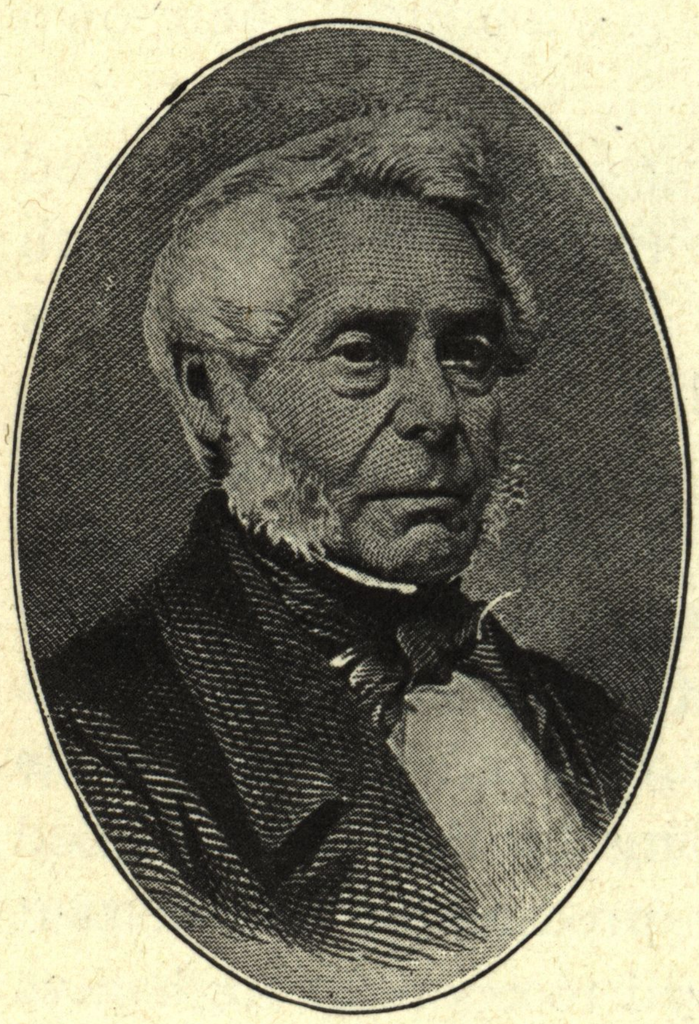
lying north-east of the St. Francis river, in the valley of the Chateauguay, and along the banks of the Ottawa.

Life in the new Settlements.—The hardships of life in these forest settlements were those of the Loyalists, already described. The immigrants from the British Isles were entirely unused to the conditions of the backwoods, and many were doubtless bitterly disappointed and discouraged when brought face to face with them. Many years of privation and hard, unceasing toil were to be endured. But with the toil came a new sense of freedom and independence. The land was their own, and no man was their master. They reaped the benefit of their own labour, paying no rent and few taxes. They became more self-reliant, being of necessity for years their own carpenters and blacksmiths, their own tailors and shoemakers.

The first product of the clearing was potash, extracted from the ashes of hardwood trees. It was worth thirty or forty dollars a barrel, and with it the settlers purchased the necessaries of life. Once cleared, the farms yielded abundant crops, the most important of which was wheat. Swine were raised in numbers, and pork was the common meat. It always sold for a good price, being a favourite food in the lumber camps.

Roads.—Prosperity gradually dawned on these new settlements, though hindered long by the lack of good roads by which to carry their produce to the distant markets. Settlers were required to open up highways across their own lands, but for many years no provision was made for continuing them across the great vacant blocks between, which had often been acquired by friends of the executive at small cost and withheld from settlement for purposes of speculation. After 1830

large sums were voted by the assemblies for road-making, but the money was seldom spent to advantage, and even the main thoroughfares remained in poor condition. Travelling over them was slow and tiresome. A journey from Montreal to Toronto or New York by the great lumbering coaches seventy years ago seldom took less than four or five days, and usually much more. These roads were almost impassable to carriages during the wet seasons of the spring and autumn. They were best in early winter when they were hardened by frost and smoothed by snow. Then the farmers would load their huge home-made sleighs with wheat, butter, pork and potash, drive to Toronto, Kingston, Montreal or Quebec, perhaps eighty or a hundred miles away, and return with the tea, salt, cloth, hardware and such necessary articles as could not be produced on the farm.



WM. HAMILTON MERRITT.

Canals.—The rapid growth of Upper Canada in population and trade rendered necessary the improvement of the great natural highway of the St. Lawrence by which she was connected with the sea. The Canadian canal system began with the construction in 1821-24 of the LACHINE CANAL to avoid the rapids of that name just above Montreal. In the latter year the WELLAND CANAL was begun by a company headed by WM. HAMILTON MERRITT, to whose foresight and enterprise Canada owes much. This important work affords a passage between Lakes

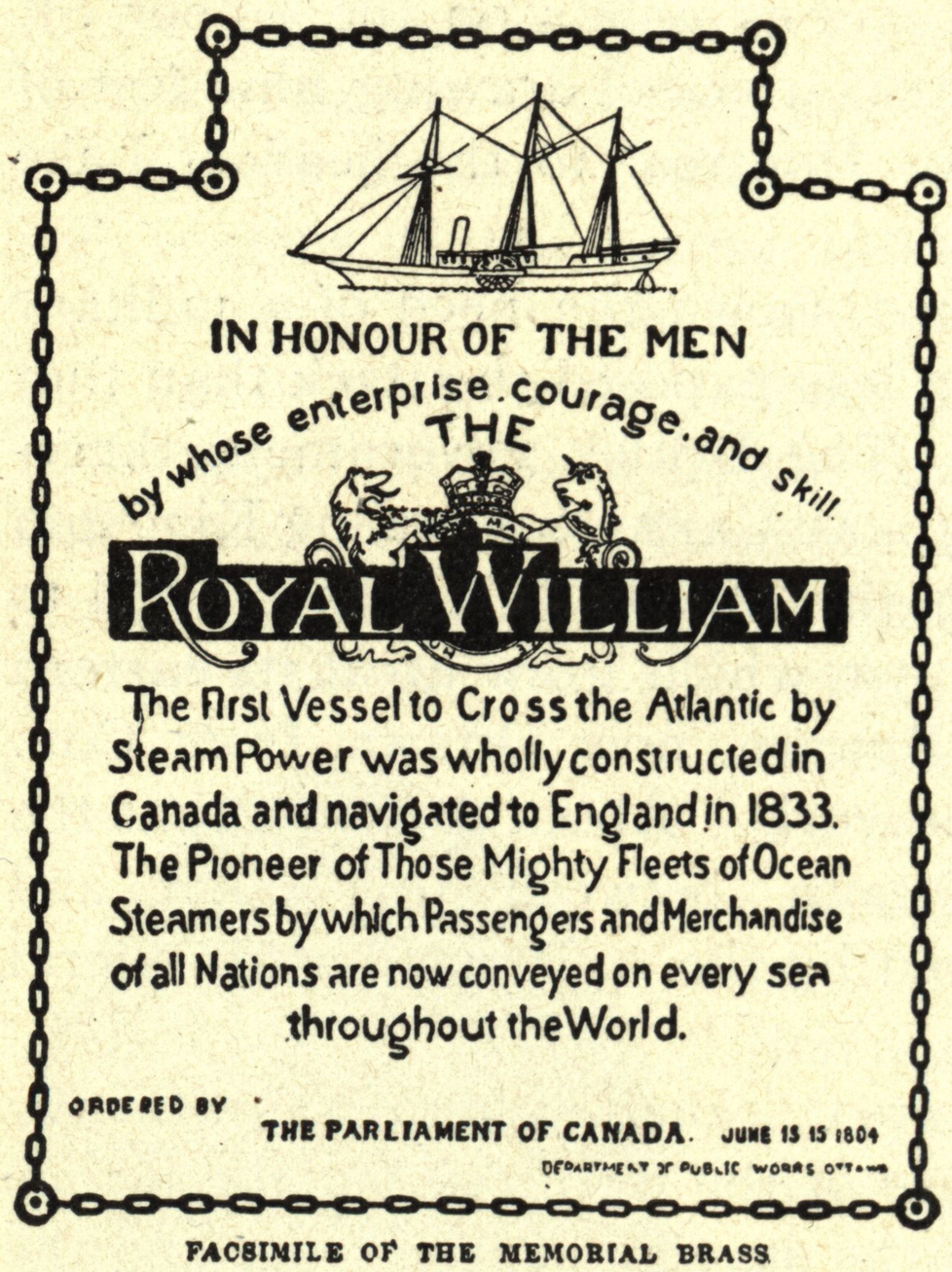
Erie and Ontario, and so extends a navigable route to the west, in spite of the obstruction at Niagara Falls. It was finished in 1829, the greater part of its cost being paid by the provincial government, which afterwards took control of the work. Other canals were afterwards constructed at various points on the Upper St. Lawrence, so that by 1848 a vessel drawing nine feet of water could pass from Montreal to the head of Lake Huron or Lake Michigan.

The war of 1812 had shown the need of a military route to Upper Canada less exposed to attack than that of the St. Lawrence. The British government therefore constructed the RIDEAU CANAL connecting Kingston on Lake Ontario with the Ottawa. It was opened to traffic in 1832. The town which grew up at its eastern terminus was called Bytown, now Ottawa, from COL. BY, the engineer of the work. About the same time the navigation of the Ottawa between this point and Montreal was improved by the construction of several short canals.

The cost of this great canal system was a heavy burden on the revenues of the country, but the people were amply repaid by the development of trade and the growth of prosperity which followed.

Shipping.—This period was also marked by progress in shipbuilding. In 1841 sixty-four ships were launched at Quebec alone. Most of these were sailing vessels, but Canada took an active part in the development of steam navigation as well. The first vessel propelled by steam was the *Clermont*, launched on the Hudson in 1807 by ROBERT FULTON. The next was a Canadian boat, the *Accommodation*, built in 1809 by the HON. JOHN MOLSON at Montreal, to ply between that city and Quebec. Her rate of speed was only five miles an hour,

but others, swifter and larger, soon joined her on the same route. The first ship to cross the Atlantic by steam power was the *Royal William*. She was built for a company of merchants of Halifax and Quebec, and was launched at the latter city in 1831. In 1833 she sailed from Pictou for London, and reached her destination after a stormy voyage of twenty-five days.

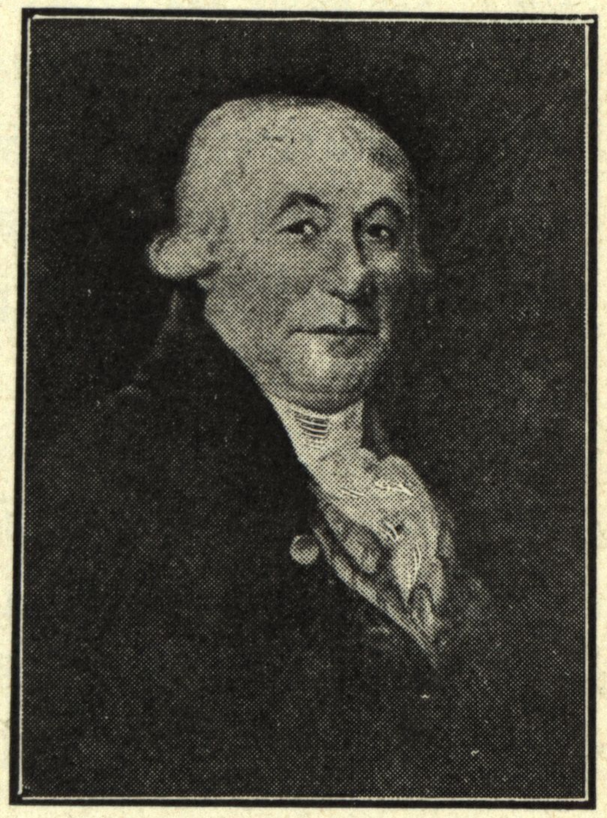


FACSIMILE OF THE MEMORIAL BRASS

One of the owners of the *Royal William* was SAMUEL CUNARD of Halifax. He became deeply interested in ocean steam navigation, and in 1839 he organized in Great Britain the CUNARD STEAMSHIP COMPANY. Having secured from the British government a contract to carry the mails, they began in 1840 a regular service from Liverpool to Halifax and Boston. Their fleet was thus the pioneer of the great Atlantic steamship lines.

Education.—Many of the most noted Canadian colleges and academies trace their origin to this time. The oldest of these in the English provinces is KING'S COLLEGE, founded in 1788 at Windsor in Nova Scotia, for students belonging to the Episcopal Church. To provide education for others PICTOU ACADEMY was founded in 1816. Four years later DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, established

by the governor of that name, was opened at Halifax as a provincial institution. The UNIVERSITY OF NEW BRUNSWICK began its work in a humble way as early as 1800. In Lower Canada the Roman Catholic Church maintained many excellent seminaries, the most noted of which was LAVAL, already mentioned; so that Lord Durham was able to report of that province: "I know of no people among whom a larger provision exists for the higher kinds of elementary education." In 1829 there was opened at Montreal for the education of English-speaking students, MCGILL UNIVERSITY, so named from its founder, a merchant of the city. The most important educational institution in the upper province was UPPER CANADA COLLEGE, opened in 1830.



JAMES MCGILL.
Founder of McGill University.

The condition of elementary education, especially in the country districts, was still unsatisfactory. It could hardly be otherwise, while the population was so scattered, and so absorbed in the struggle for a bare living. Reports show that about 1840 not more than half the school population of the English provinces received public instruction, even for a part of the year. In Lower Canada the condition was even worse, and only a very small proportion of the French *habitants* were able to read and write.

The country schoolhouses at this time were usually bare and cheerless. A few rough desks were ranged round three sides of the room, while the children sat all day long on high benches without backs. Instruction

was given in reading, writing, and the simple rules of arithmetic. The teachers were seldom trained, and those of Upper Canada were described by a writer of the time as "ill-fed, ill-clothed, ill-paid, or not paid at all."

The rising generation, however, were not indifferent to education, and were anxious that their successors should enjoy the advantages which they themselves lacked. During the next period great progress was made in all of the provinces.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXIII

1. Growth of population.

a. Number in 1791 and in 1841.

b. Immigration from the United States and Great Britain.

2. Life in the new settlements.

a. Hardships of pioneers.

b. Effects on character.

c. Products of farms.

d. Roads.

3. Construction of Canals.

Lachine, Welland, Rideau.

4. Shipping.

a. Sailing vessels.

b. Steam navigation.

The *Accommodation*, the *Royal William*, the Cunard line.

5. Education.

a. Colleges and academies.

b. Condition of elementary schools.

General Questions

1. Why did many people emigrate to Canada?
2. Describe life in the early settlements.
3. What do you know about the settlement of your own district?
4. Of what benefit have Canadian canals been to the country? Name the most important.
5. What colleges were founded during this period?
6. Why was elementary education so long in a backward condition?

Part VII. Steps towards Confederation

CHAPTER XXXIV

FURTHER PROGRESS IN SELF-GOVERNMENT

The New Parliament and Ministry.—The first parliament of united Canada met in 1841 at Kingston, the capital chosen by Lord Sydenham. Its members were loosely grouped into two parties. There were the "Conservatives," as they now called themselves, the extreme section of which was the old official party and still strongly opposed responsible government, while the others now somewhat doubtfully accepted responsible government, but looked with horror upon the rebellion and all connected with it. The majority of the assembly were Reformers; but they, too, were divided. The members of this party from Lower Canada were still bitterly opposed to the union and were, therefore, not represented in the new executive council, or ministry, as it was now usually called. This body was chosen by the governor from the moderate men of both parties. The most prominent Conservative was W. H. Draper. Mr. Baldwin, the Reform leader, held office for a short time only, as he found himself differing on many questions from the governor and the Conservative members of the ministry.

Perhaps the most important work of the first session of the new parliament was the passage of the Municipal Act. This measure extended the principle of

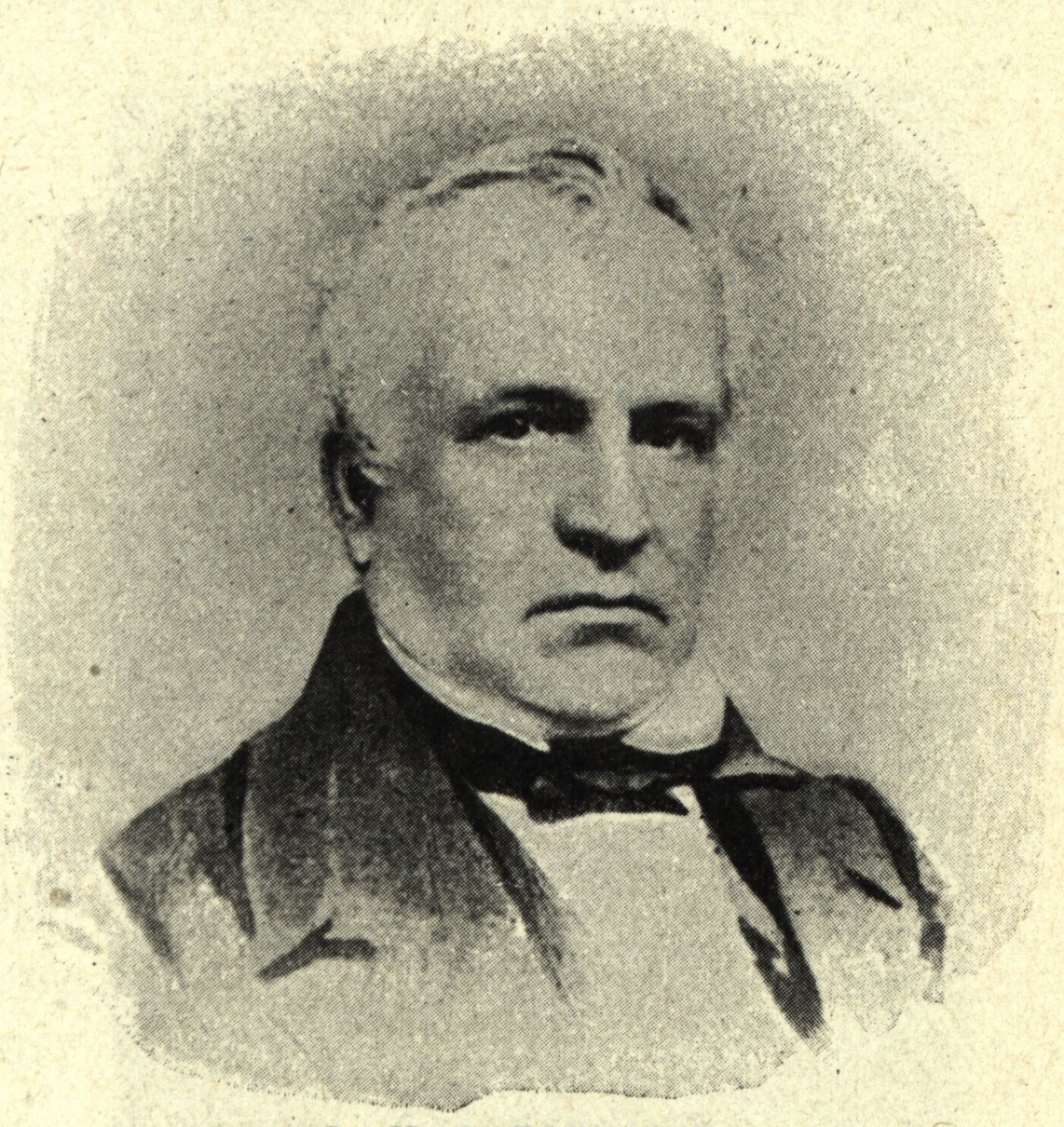
self-government by handing over to councils elected by the people of each village, town, or county, such local business as the control of streets, roads, bridges, public improvements, etc. Similar acts were not passed in the Maritime Provinces until after Confederation.

By the time when parliament finished its work for the year Lord Sydenham was dying. Carrying on his own shoulders the whole burden of government, he had worn out his strength, and a fall from horseback caused a shock to his system from which he did not recover. According to his own wish he was buried at Kingston, in the soil of the country to which he had given his best services.

Bagot favours the Reformers.—Sydenham's successor was Sir Charles Bagot. Although a conservative in British politics, he resolved to carry out in full measure the principles of responsible government. His courtesy and his evident wish to treat all parties fairly did much to conciliate the French. As the Reformers were now united into a compact majority of the assembly, the governor invited the leading members of the party from both sections to seats in the executive council. Chief among these were Robert Baldwin,

SIR CHARLES BAGOT.

the most respected and trusted of the Upper Canada Reformers, and his friend, L. H. LAFONTAINE, who had succeeded Papineau in the leadership of the French-Canadians. Owing to ill-health Bagot was soon compelled to resign his office, but was unable to return to England, and died at Kingston in 1843. In the same year it was decided to move the seat of government from Kingston to Montreal, which was more centrally situated and better fitted to support the dignity of a capital city.



L. H. LAFONTAINE.

Metcalfe's reactionary Rule.—Sir Charles Metcalfe, who was chosen to replace Bagot, had seen long years of service in India and in Jamaica; but his experience with Hindoos and negroes had not fitted him to become the wise head of a self-governing colony like Canada. He was ready to act upon the idea of responsible government, still held by the Colonial Office, that the governor was the real chief of the executive, and that while he might consult with his ministers, it was by no means necessary that he should always act on their advice. On his arrival in Canada he accepted the view of the Conservatives, that the loyalty of the Reform ministry, especially of

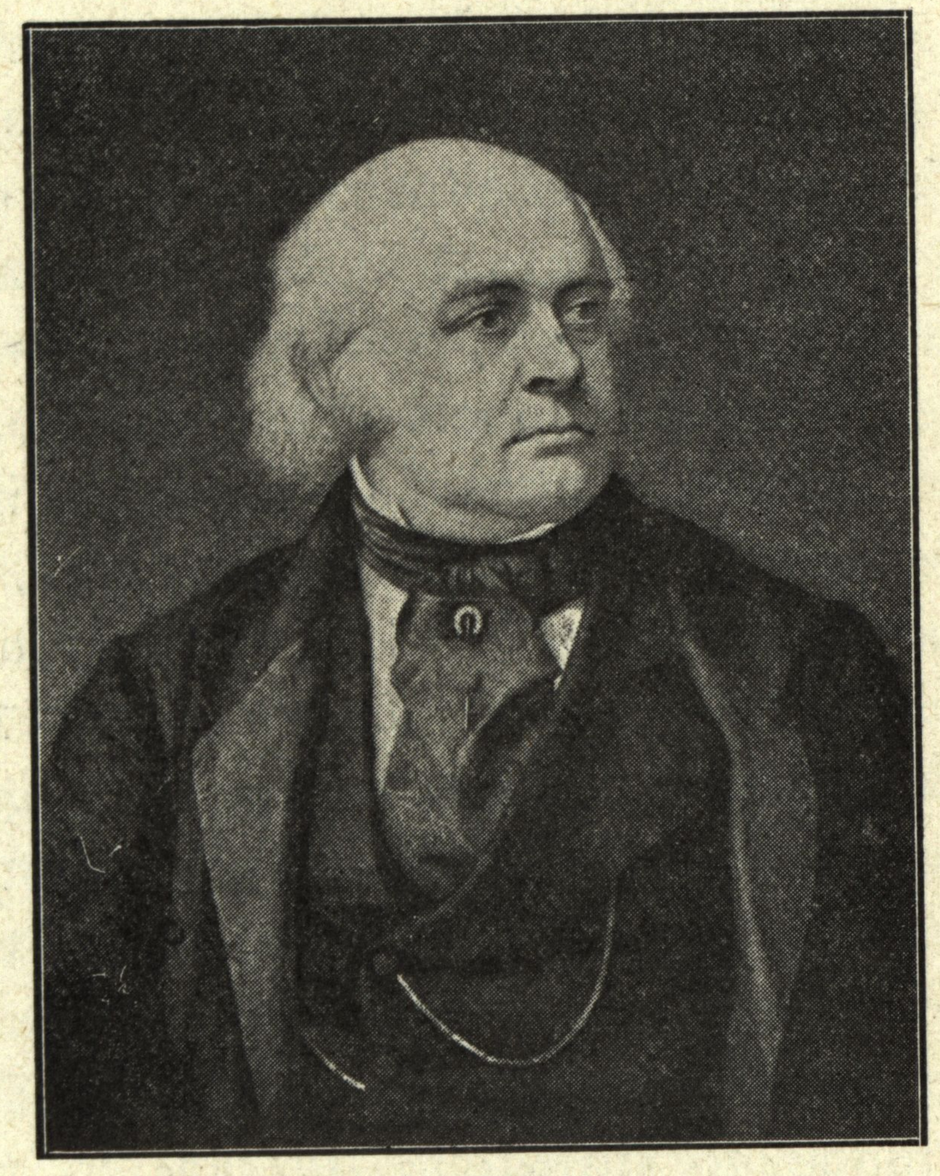
its French members, was not to be trusted. He felt that his first duty, therefore, was to guard the authority of the Crown against the encroachments of such advisers, and insisted on keeping in his own hands the right of making appointments to office. As he often exercised this power without the knowledge of his ministers, and sometimes contrary to their advice, they resigned, although supported by two-thirds of the assembly.

SIR CHARLES METCALFE.

The Draper Ministry, 1844.—The governor had great difficulty in finding successors, and nine months elapsed before a Conservative ministry, with Mr. Draper at its head, was completed. In the elections which followed Metcalfe secured a small majority for his policy. Most of his supporters were from Upper Canada, where the governor's personal influence and the loyalty cry proved as powerful as in the days of Sir F. B. Head. Among them was the new member for Kingston, a young lawyer, who after a political career of forty-seven years was to die the most famous of Canadian statesmen, JOHN A. MACDONALD. In 1845 Sir Charles Metcalfe returned to England on account of ill-health, being succeeded by

Earl Cathcart. The latter was a military officer and interfered as little as possible with political affairs. But race and party feeling still ran high, while popular discontent was aggravated by the prevailing depression in trade. The Draper ministry still clung to office, although it was plain that they had lost the confidence of the country.

Responsible Government fully Established.—In 1846 a Liberal ministry came into power in England under the leadership of Lord John Russell who, as Colonial Secretary, had conceded the principle of responsible government in 1839. He was now at length convinced that nothing short of the system pursued in England would satisfy the majority of the Canadian people. The governor should rule in Canada as the sovereign did in Britain, and should follow the advice of his council in local matters as long as they retained the confidence of the Canadian parliament.



LORD ELGIN.

With such instructions Lord Elgin was appointed governor-general in 1847. He was the son-in-law of Lord Durham, and was in every way well qualified to carry out in full the policy recommended by that statesman in 1838. About the same time similar

concessions, as we have seen, were made in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, so that by 1848 the system of responsible government was fully established in British North America.

The Second Baldwin-Lafontaine Ministry.—In 1847 the assembly of Canada was dissolved. The ensuing elections resulted in a sweeping victory for the Reformers in both sections of the province. On the invitation of the governor Baldwin and Lafontaine formed a new ministry. One of its first measures was to extend a general pardon to the banished rebels of 1837–38, and W. L. Mackenzie at once returned to Canada. Most of the leaders, however, had already received special pardons. Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson were now members of the assembly. The former tried to revive political agitation, but he found that he had lost most of his influence over his countrymen, who now followed the wiser and more moderate counsels of Lafontaine. The French language was now replaced on an equality with English in the official record of public business, to the great satisfaction of the majority in Lower Canada.

The Rebellion Losses Act, 1849.—Such measures created an uneasy feeling among the Conservatives, but they were roused to fury by another bill now introduced by the ministry. Shortly after the union payments had been made to those who had lost property during the rebellion in Upper Canada. The proposal was now made to devote £100,000 to the payment of losses sustained by Lower Canadians. Only those convicted of treason by courts of law were to be excluded from the benefits of the act. Since many who had taken part in the rebellion had been pardoned by Lord Durham without trial and would therefore be included with the loyalists, the Conservatives at once raised the cry, "No

pay to rebels!" All over the country party passion flamed out as furiously as ever. Exciting debates marked the progress of the bill through parliament, but it was finally passed by a large majority.

The Governor stoned, the Parliament Buildings burned.—Lord Elgin's own opinion seems to have been that such an expenditure of money was unwise, but as the question was one that concerned only Canadians themselves, he accepted the advice of his responsible ministers, and signed the bills at the parliament buildings. When he came out he was greeted with hisses, groans and rotten eggs by the well-dressed crowd of opponents of the bill. That evening the parliament buildings were attacked by the mob, and, being set on fire either by accident or design, were destroyed with the valuable library of books and historical records.

Attacks were made upon the houses of Lafontaine and other leading Reformers, and much damage was done. The presentation of a loyal address from the assembly to the governor at the Chateau de Ramezay was the occasion of another outburst of violence. On his way to and from the building, rioters pelted the governor with stones which smashed the panels of his carriage and wounded some of his escort. To avoid cause of further disturbance he did not again visit the city but remained at his residence at Monklands, a few miles away. Lord Elgin acted with the greatest dignity and forbearance during this trying time. Such outrageous treatment of the Queen's representative caused the utmost indignation, and loyal addresses poured in to him from all parts of the country. Moreover, he soon had the satisfaction of knowing that his course was cordially approved of by the British government.

The seat of government removed.—It was felt impossible that Montreal should continue to be the capital after these disorders, and the seat of government was established alternately at Toronto and Quebec, so as to satisfy the rival claims of both sections of the province.

Commercial Freedom.—The acceptance of the Rebellion Losses Bill by Lord Elgin, with the approval and support of the British government, marks the final triumph of political freedom in Canada. From this time may also be dated her commercial freedom. Under the old system the trade of the colonies was controlled by the mother country. Her navigation laws excluded foreign ships from their ports. The amount of duty to be paid on imports was fixed in London, although the expenditure of the revenues thus raised had, since the American Revolution, been left to the colonial governments. In return, colonial goods were admitted free to British markets, while foreign goods paid duty.

In 1846, however, Britain adopted the policy of "Free Trade," throwing her markets open to the commerce of the world. Canadian products, such as timber and wheat, thus lost the advantage which they had enjoyed, and for several years Canadian trade suffered severely. But in time the provinces gained more than they lost; for they were now free to regulate their own trade and to fix their customs tariffs to suit their own interests. The repeal of the navigation laws in 1849 removed the last barrier to commerce with foreign nations. Merchants, left to their own resources, gained in energy and self-reliance; and the succeeding years were marked by rapid growth in trade, manufactures and wealth.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXIV

1. **The organization of the new government.**
   - *a.* Sydenham forms the first ministry of both parties.
   - *b.* The passage of the Municipal Act.
   - *c.* Death of Sydenham.
2. **Bagot favours the Reformers.**
   - *a.* The Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry in power.
   - *b.* Montreal made the capital.
3. **Metcalfe's reactionary Rule.**
   - *a.* His views of responsible government.
   - *b.* Resignation of Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry.
   - *c.* Elections give Draper ministry a small majority.
4. **Responsible Government fully established by Lord Elgin.**
   - *a.* His instructions from Colonial Office to follow advice of ministry.
   - *b.* The second Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry.
   - *c.* Elgin accepts ministers' advice to sign the Rebellion Losses Bill.
   - *d.* Riotous opposition to bill in Montreal.
     Parliament Building burned, the governor stoned.
   - *e.* The removal of the capital from Montreal.
5. **Canada given commercial independence.**

General Questions

1. How did the responsible government conceded through Lord Elgin differ from that advocated by Lord Sydenham and Sir Charles Metcalfe?
2. What advantage had Montreal as the seat of government?
3. What facts show the growing influence of the French in parliament at this time?
4. What were the objections of the Conservatives to the Rebellion Losses Bill?

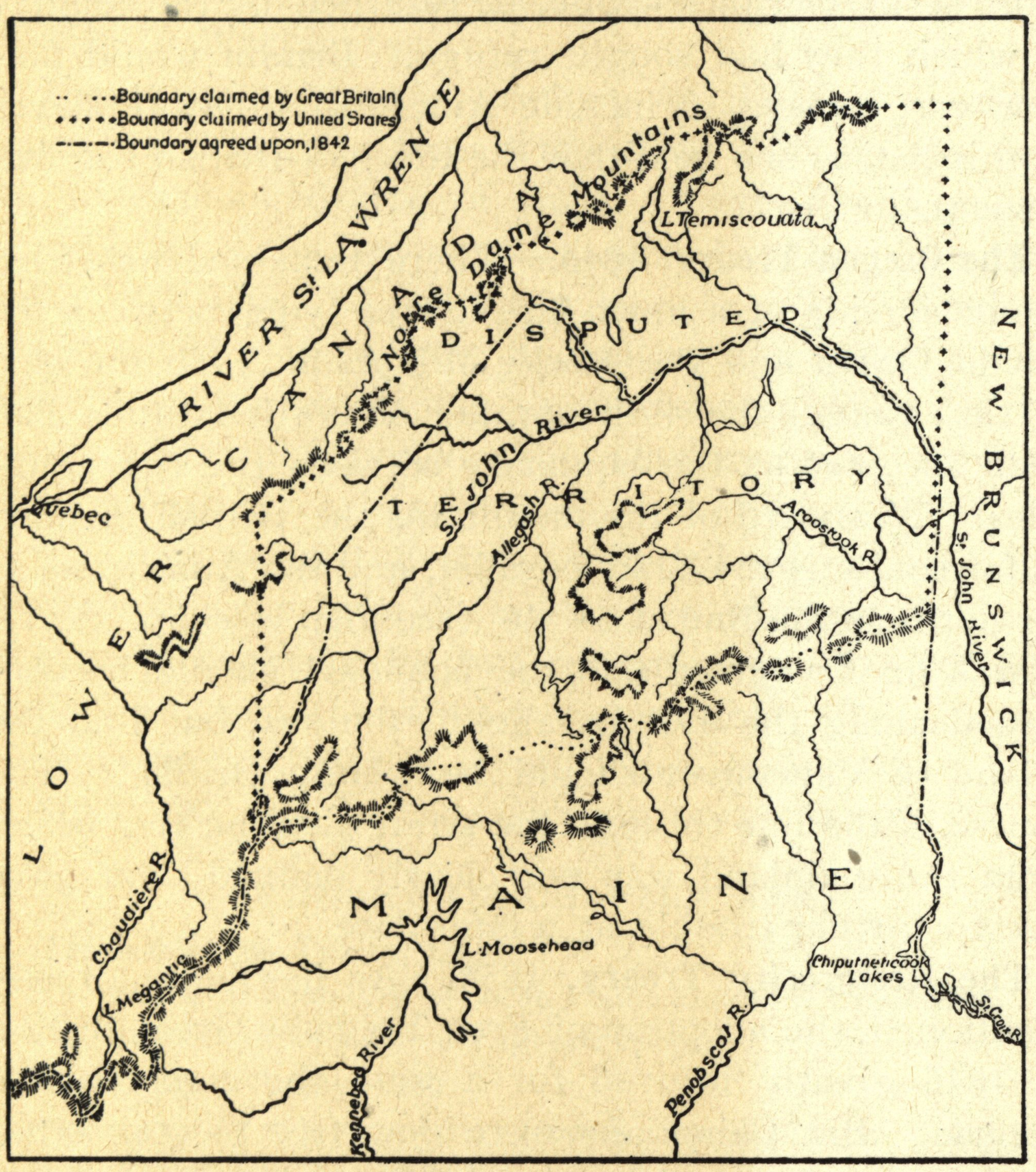
CHAPTER XXXV

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

Powers retained by Mother Country.—While surrendering to the various provincial governments the control of affairs purely provincial, Britain retained the right to disallow any acts of their parliaments which she thought injurious to the interests of the empire as a whole. Similarly, she kept in her own hands the settlement of disputes arising between the colonies and foreign nations, while at the same time she continued to protect them with the power of her army and navy. Canadians sometimes complain that the mother country has been too ready to sacrifice their interests for the sake of maintaining peace with the United States; but it is very likely that Canada would have fared much worse had she herself been conducting negotiations alone.

The New Brunswick Boundary dispute.—The ill-feeling between Canada and the United States, roused by the *Caroline* affair and the border raids of 1838, intensified the bitterness of the long-standing dispute over the boundary between New Brunswick and Maine. The language of the Treaty of Versailles which defined the line was so loose and inaccurate that it was afterwards found most difficult to interpret. The United States claimed that the boundary ran north of the upper valley of the River St. John. Britain claimed that it ran south of that stream. When lumbermen and settlers began to enter the district in question, the dispute grew more serious, and seemed at one time likely to be settled only by war. Fortunately peaceful counsels prevailed.

Commissioners were chosen to fix the boundary and to settle other questions at the same time. Lord Ashburton represented Great Britain, and the interests of the United States were entrusted to Daniel Webster, one of the ablest of lawyers and statesmen.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE NEW BRUNSWICK BOUNDARY DISPUTE.

The Ashburton Treaty, 1842.—An agreement was reached whereby the region in dispute was divided, the United States being given the larger and more valuable share. Canadians were disappointed in the result, by

which a great wedge of foreign territory was thrust northward between Lower Canada and New Brunswick, and felt that the British representative had been overborne by his stronger opponent.

The treaty also provided that fugitives accused of the more serious crimes should be returned by the country in which they had sought refuge. Britain would not, however, consent to include American runaway slaves in this list, as she held that the touch of British soil had made them free.

The Oregon Treaty, 1846.—There remained unsettled the ownership of a much larger area lying between the Pacific Ocean and the Rocky Mountains. To the east of that range, the 49th parallel of north latitude had been accepted as the boundary between the two countries. Westward of the mountains the British claimed as far south as the 42nd parallel, and the Americans as far north as the line of 54° 40′ (see map in chap. XXVI). It was finally agreed that the boundary should be continued along the 49th parallel to the sea, but that the Island of Vancouver should be wholly British. The course of the line through the strait dividing this island from the mainland was not clearly defined, and gave rise to further trouble at a later date.

The Reciprocity Treaty, 1854.—As has been already mentioned, the adoption of Free Trade by Great Britain in 1846 greatly injured for a time the commerce of Canada. But Canadians were now free to seek other markets for their products. All saw the advantage of freer trade with the United States; and some, angry with the mother country for her seeming indifference to colonial interests, urged annexation as the only means of obtaining it. Lord Elgin, whose great aim was to remove all causes of discontent in Canada, and

thereby to strengthen the loyalty of her people to the mother country, strove for years to convince the government of the United States that freer trade would benefit the larger country as well as the smaller. At last he was successful, and as representative of Great Britain and of British North America, he signed the Reciprocity Treaty at Washington.

Under its terms the products of the two countries from the farm, the forest, the mine and the sea were to be exchanged free of duty. Lake Michigan was opened to Canadian vessels, and the St. Lawrence with its canals, to American vessels. The people of each country were free to fish in the other's coast waters. The treaty was to continue in force for ten years, after which period either country could terminate it by giving a year's notice of its intention.

The effects of the treaty fulfilled all expectations. Before it went into operation, the average value of the trade between the two countries was $14,000,000. Before it closed, the increase was six-fold. The amount during the first year of its existence arose to more than $33,000,000, and for the last year it was $84,000,000.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXV

1. **The Ashburton Treaty, 1842.**
   - *a.* Fixing of boundary between Maine and New Brunswick.
   - *b.* Extradition of criminals agreed upon.
2. **The Oregon Treaty, 1846.**
   49th parallel made boundary from Rocky Mountains to sea.
3. **The Reciprocity Treaty, 1854.**
   - *a.* Free trade in products of farm, forest, mine and sea.
   - *b.* Reciprocal privileges in fishing and navigation.

General Questions

1. What caused boundary disputes between Canada and U. S.?
2. Draw maps to illustrate the disputes of this time.
3. State the terms and the effects of the Reciprocity Treaty.

CHAPTER XXXVI

PARTIES REORGANIZED, ABUSES REMOVED

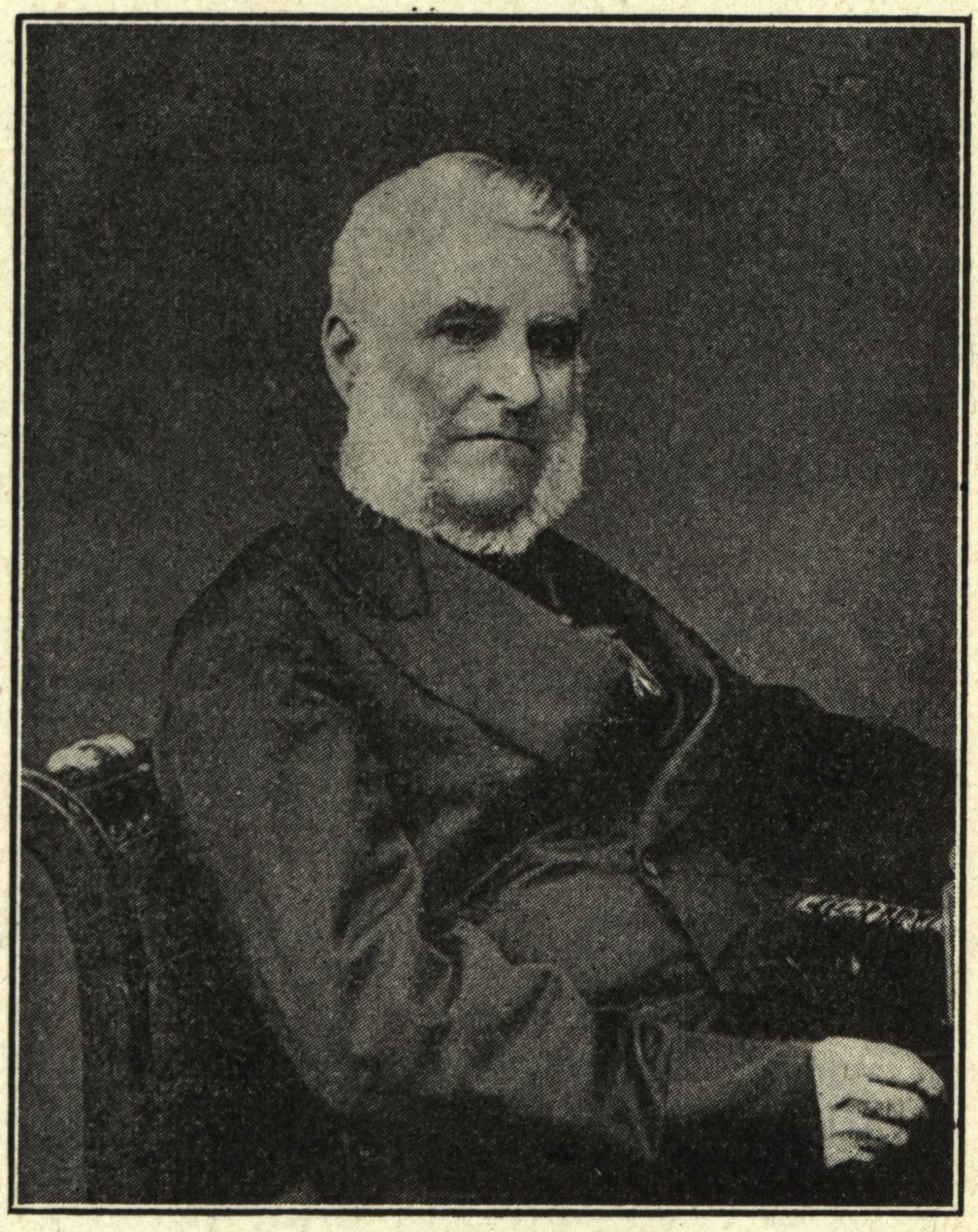
The Resignation of Baldwin and Lafontaine.—Meanwhile important changes had taken place in parties and leaders. In 1851 Messrs. Baldwin and Lafontaine retired from the government. The latter soon afterwards accepted the Chief-Justiceship of Lower Canada, and long fulfilled the duties of that important position with honour and dignity. Mr. Baldwin remained in retirement until his death in 1858. During the twenty-two years of his public life party feeling was intensely bitter, but not even his fiercest opponents ever questioned his uprightness, unselfishness and purity of purpose. None will now deny the greatness of his services to his country. His name will always rank with those of Lafontaine, Howe and Wilmot, of Durham, Sydenham and Elgin—the fathers of Responsible Government of Canada.

The Hincks-Morin Ministry.—Of the remaining ministers, Hincks and Morin were the most prominent, and became leaders. During their term of office they carried through parliament a number of important measures providing for the establishment of decimal currency, the increase of the representation of each province in the assembly to sixty-five, and for the construction of various railways.

There was, however, a strong and growing opposition to the ministry among the Reformers of Upper Canada on account of their slowness in carrying out certain long-demanded reforms, especially the abolition of the

Clergy Reserves, and of Seigniorial Tenure in Lower Canada. These advanced Reformers were called in the political slang of the day "Clear Grits."

The MacNab-Morin Ministry.—Owing to the increasing difficulties caused by these divisions in their party, the ministry advised Lord Elgin to dissolve the assembly in 1854. In the new parliament the moderate Reformers who supported the government failed to secure a majority of the whole house, although they were more numerous than either the advanced Reformers or the Conservatives alone. Mr. Hincks soon resigned, and Lord Elgin called on Sir Allan MacNab, the Conservative leader, to form a new ministry. He was unable to do so with his own party alone, but found allies among the moderate Reformers. The French section of this party, especially, had been becoming more conservative in their views. They were now willing to form any combination to keep the extreme Reformers out of power. Mr. Morin and several of his late colleagues from both parts of the province took office under MacNab, who was thus able to form a strong



SIR FRANCIS HINCKS.

ministry, supported by two-thirds of the assembly. The combined party was sometimes called Liberal-Conservative and remained in power, with a few short interruptions, until 1873.

The Clergy Reserves Act.—The elections had shown that a majority of the people demanded the settlement of the vexed questions referred to above, and the new ministry proceeded at once to carry out their wishes. Reformers had long opposed the claim of Bishop Strachan and the Episcopal Church to all the benefits of the Clergy Reserves. In 1840 an act was passed granting one-third of the proceeds of future sales to the Episcopal Church, one-sixth to the Presbyterian Church and dividing the rest among other Protestant denominations. But a strong agitation soon began against the application of public funds to religious purposes at all. The act of 1854 provided that the money derived from the lands should be distributed among the various municipalities in proportion to population, to be used for the support of public schools and other local purposes.

The Seigniorial Tenure Act.—The people of Lower Canada were more interested in the other land grievance. Most of the grants of land during the French rule were made according to Seigniorial Tenure, as already described (see page 53). The conditions were at first easy for the tenant. After the conquest, however, rents were raised by the seigneurs, other dues were harshly exacted, or changed into money payments. The whole system had become a drag upon the progress of the province, but reform was long delayed by the political influence of the seigneurs. The measure passed at the same time as the Clergy Reserves Act rendered the sale of such lands more easy, and granted

a large sum of money to landlords in return for the abolition of seigniorial rights.

The Departure of Lord Elgin.—At the close of 1854 Lord Elgin returned to England. Under the eight years of his wise and enlightened rule Canada made great political progress. Long before he departed he had won the confidence and affection of all classes and parties, even of those who had been his bitterest enemies in the days of the Rebellion Losses Bill. His successor in the governorship of Canada was Sir Edmund Head.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXVI

1. **Parties reorganized.**
   - *a.* Baldwin and Lafontaine give place to Hincks and Morin as Reform leaders.
   - *b.* The extreme Reformers oppose the new ministry.
   - *c.* Formation of the MacNab-Morin ministry supported by the Conservatives and moderate Reformers.
2. **Reforms carried.**
   - *a.* The Clergy Reserves Act, 1854.
     Ungranted land of Clergy Reserves given to municipalities for educational and other purposes.
   - *b.* Seigniorial Tenure Act, 1854.
     Objectional features of the land system of Lower Canada removed.

General Questions

1. Write in your own words an account of Robert Baldwin.
2. Why did the French Reformers join the Conservatives in preference to the extreme Reformers of Upper Canada?
3. Write in your own words a sketch of Lord Elgin and his rule.

CHAPTER XXXVII

SECTIONAL STRIFE

Opposing Leaders.—Within the next few years many changes took place in the leadership of the governing party, but undoubtedly the ablest and most prominent member of the various ministries that were formed from it was John A. Macdonald. His entrance to parliament in 1844 has already been mentioned. After the retirement of Sir Allan MacNab in 1856 he became the leader of his party in Upper Canada. His pleasant manner and easy good-humour won for him many personal friends, even among his political opponents. But beneath these qualities there lay a high temper and a resolute will, and no leader of his time was stronger or more skilful in controlling political movements and in bending men to his purpose. His firm friend and ally in Lower Canada was GEORGE E. CARTIER, once the follower of the rebellious Papineau, now the loyal upholder of the Queen's authority.

Macdonald's most dangerous opponent was GEORGE BROWN, the leader of the extreme Reformers. He was the editor of the *Globe*, a paper which had a wide influence in Upper Canada. His readiness of speech, his energy and earnestness of purpose, made him a power in the assembly, but he lacked Macdonald's shrewdness and success in managing men.

Separate Schools.—The people of Upper and of Lower Canada were too unlike to agree very well together under a single government. The Upper Canadians, mainly Protestants of British origin, differed in ideas, customs

and laws from the Lower Canadians, who were largely Roman Catholics of French origin. The majority of the former were in favour of public schools for children of all denominations, and supported Mr. Brown in his opposition to the establishment in their province of separate schools for Roman Catholics, as was proposed by the Conservative ministry and carried with the aid of their majority from Lower Canada.

Representation by Population.—Another troublesome question was that of representation in parliament. When the census of 1851 showed that the population of the upper section of the province had surpassed that of the lower, the Reformers there demanded that it should receive an increased number of members. The French-Canadians were firmly resolved that no change should be made, as it would place them in an inferior position in the union. They pointed out, too, that the representation of Lower Canada had not been greater than that of Upper Canada during the years when its population had been much larger. The effect of this agitation was to give the Reformers a great majority in Upper Canada, but to make the Lower Canadians almost unanimous in support of the Conservatives. Thus party strife, unfortunately, became sectional strife.

Ottawa chosen as Capital.—No one was satisfied with the troublesome and expensive custom of changing the capital every four years, but the choice of a permanent seat of government was made so difficult by sectional jealousy that the government asked the Queen to decide. In 1858 she named Ottawa. The supporters of other rival cities were disappointed and united to carry a resolution in the assembly disapproving of the choice. The government, now led by John A. Macdonald, resigned. But Mr. Brown, whose political views made

him very unpopular in Lower Canada, was unable to form a ministry commanding the confidence of parliament, and the Conservatives resumed their places, this time under the leadership of Cartier. From 1859 to the completion of the parliament buildings at the new capital in 1866, Quebec was the seat of government.

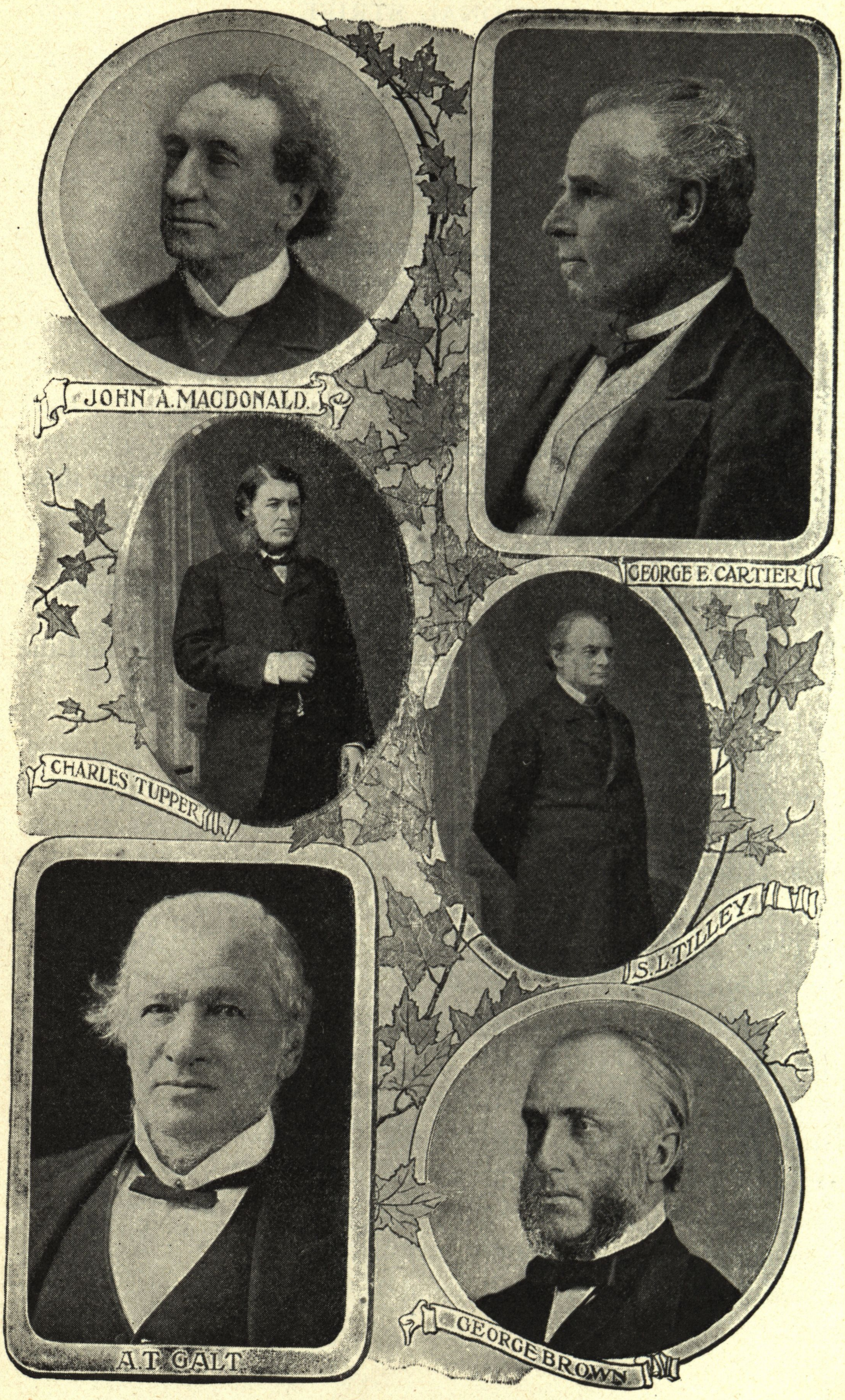
A Deadlock.—According to the census of 1861 there was a difference of 300,000 in population in favour of Upper Canada. The cry for representation by population—"rep. by pop."—grew louder than ever. Parties became so evenly balanced that a change of a few votes in the assembly meant a change of government. Four different ministries, equally weak, held office within two years. Under such conditions, ministers spent their energies in efforts to strengthen their political position. Corruption flourished and public business was at a standstill. When the legislative union of the Canadas had thus proved a failure, the minds of thoughtful statesmen turned to a federal union of all the provinces, under which matters of common interest might be placed in charge of a general government, while matters of local interest would be left under the control of provincial governments. Such a plan, it was hoped, would end the jealousy and ill-feeling which had been caused by the settlement of questions concerning the one section alone by the votes of members from the other. In 1864 rival leaders agreed to sink their differences and to work together for this end. Messrs. Brown, Mowat and McDougall of the Reform party took office along with such Conservatives as Macdonald, Cartier and Galt. The premier was Sir E. P. Taché, a veteran French-Canadian statesman of moderate views, who had the confidence of both parties.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXVII

1. **Opposing leaders.**
   - *a.* Macdonald and Cartier, Conservatives.
   - *b.* George Brown, extreme Reformer.
2. **Division of parties on sectional disputes.**
   - *a.* Separate schools in Upper Canada.
   - *b.* Representation by population.
   - *c.* The choice of a capital.
3. **A political deadlock.**
   - *a.* Even balance of parties.
   - *b.* Frequent changes of ministry.
4. **Formation of a coalition ministry to carry Confederation, 1864.**

General Questions

1. Why did the people of Upper and of Lower Canada find it so difficult to work together under one government?
2. Why were the Reformers strong in Upper Canada and the Conservatives in Lower Canada?
3. Why was Ottawa chosen as capital?



FOUNDERS OF THE DOMINION.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

CONFEDERATION

Growth of the Idea.—The scheme of a union of the British-American provinces was not a new one. It had been suggested by Sewell and by Lord Durham. In 1854 a resolution in favour of it was unanimously passed by the assembly of Nova Scotia after eloquent speeches by Howe and Johnson, the party leaders. ALEXANDER T. GALT, member for Sherbrooke, warmly supported such a plan in the Canadian assembly in 1858, and when he joined the Cartier-Macdonald government a little later, it was made a part of their policy. But no active steps to carry the policy of Confederation into effect were taken until it was adopted in 1864 as the one remedy for the deadlock in the Canadian parliament.

The Charlottetown Conference.—In the meantime the Maritime Provinces had taken up the idea of a smaller union among themselves. Representatives of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island met at Charlottetown in September, 1864, to arrange the terms. The opportunity was seized by the Canadian government, and Macdonald, Brown, Cartier and Galt with other ministers joined the conference to urge the wider scheme upon it. The Maritime delegates gave them a warm welcome, but postponed consideration of general union until they should have consulted their respective governments.

The Quebec Conference.—On the 10th of October thirty-three delegates from all the provinces, including Newfoundland, reassembled at Quebec. Canada

was represented by the whole cabinet. Prominent among the other representatives were Dr. Charles Tupper, S. L. Tilley and J. H. Gray, the premiers of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island respectively. The meetings, which were held with closed doors, continued for eighteen days. "The Quebec Scheme" of union was finally agreed to. It was to be kept secret until it should be submitted to the various provincial parliaments for their approval. By some means, however, knowledge of its principal terms leaked out, and the people everywhere were soon eagerly discussing it. Old party lines were for the time forgotten, men taking sides as Confederates or Anti-confederates.

Confederation delayed. — Confederation was of vital importance to Canada, and early in 1865 it was approved of in her parliament by great majorities. But in the eastern provinces the Quebec Scheme met with strong opposition. The legislature of Prince Edward Island rejected it, that of Newfoundland would not even discuss it. In New Brunswick the question was submitted to the people. They returned a hostile majority, so that the Tilley government was compelled to give place to one formed from the Anti-confederate party. With New Brunswick in opposition, Tupper felt that it would be useless to proceed with the scheme in Nova Scotia, and for a year no progress was made.

The Reciprocity Treaty ended.—From 1861 to 1865 a great struggle had been going on in the United States between the North, opposed to slavery, and the South, which supported slavery and wished to extend it. During the progress of this struggle there grew up in the North a hostile feeling towards Britain and Canada, whose people were accused of showing too much

sympathy with the South. The British government announced that it would be neutral in the contest; but, through its slowness in acting, the steamer *Alabama*, built in England for the government of the South, was able to escape to sea, and to prey for a time upon the commerce of the North. Southerners who had taken refuge in Canada made a raid upon the town of St. Albans in Vermont and carried off a large sum of money from the banks there. On their return to Canada they were arrested, but were soon released through lack of evidence. The prompt despatch of troops to watch the frontier, however, prevented other violations of the laws of neutrality.

During the war the price of provisions in the United States became very high, and the Reciprocity Treaty enabled the Canadian farmers to sell their products there at a very great profit. In 1865 the government of the United States, thinking that the arrangement was benefiting Canada more than their own country, gave notice that the Treaty would be discontinued at the end of the year. For a time the effect on Canadian trade was serious, but it showed to Canadians the danger of depending too much upon a market for their products in foreign countries. Thus their desire was strengthened for a political union which would be followed by an increase of inter-provincial trade.

Fenian Raids.—The cause of Confederation was also aided by the events occurring along the American frontier in 1866. There were in the United States at this time a great number of Irishmen who cherished a bitter hatred towards all things British. They called themselves *Fenians*. Many were disbanded soldiers without employment, and readily joined an enterprise which promised harm to Canada and profit to themselves.

Early in the year bands threatened to cross the St. Croix River into New Brunswick, but were prevented by the arrival of troops.

On the 1st of June about nine hundred desperadoes entered Upper Canada at Fort Erie. Advancing westward, they were met at RIDGEWAY by a force of volunteers from Toronto and Hamilton. The Canadians were not skilfully led, and after a sharp skirmish they retreated with a loss of forty killed and wounded. The Fenians also retired and, hearing that the regulars were approaching, they made their way across the Niagara again.

A few days later a much larger force invaded the Eastern Townships near PHILLIPSBURG. They spread over the neighbouring district, plundering as they went. But they did not await the coming of the troops. As they recrossed the frontier, their leaders were arrested by the United States authorities, who had now awakened to a sense of their duty.

Confederation advanced. — The danger to which the provinces had been exposed by these raids emphasized the need of strengthening themselves by union. The British government, strongly in favour of Confederation, brought its influence to bear on New Brunswick through the governor. Public opinion there began to change. The ministry resigned, and another election restored the Confederates to power. The legislature now passed a resolution in favour of union. The approval of Nova Scotia followed. There was, however, strong opposition from Joseph Howe, who, although a life-long advocate of union, disapproved of the present scheme on the grounds that its terms were unfair to his province, and that the people had been given no chance to vote upon it.

Confederation carried.—Towards the close of 1866 the representatives of the provinces repaired to London. John A. Macdonald was made chairman of the conference. Under his guidance the Quebec Scheme was again discussed and approved of, some changes being made in favour of the smaller provinces. A bill embodying its provisions was then submitted to the British parliament. Having passed the House of Commons and the House of Lords, it was signed by Queen Victoria on March 29th, 1867, and so became the BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT. As the terms of this act comprise the Constitution by which we are governed, a separate chapter must be devoted to their explanation. By royal proclamation it came into effect on July 1st, since called DOMINION DAY, because on that date Upper Canada (now Ontario), Lower Canada (now Quebec), Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were united into the DOMINION OF CANADA.

The Dominion organized.—LORD MONCK, governor of the old province of Canada since 1861, was appointed governor-general of the new Dominion by the Queen. He asked Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been knighted for his part in carrying Confederation, to form the first ministry. The prime minister was able to gather around him able men from both of the old parties. Among others were S. L. Tilley from New Brunswick, G. E. Cartier and A. T. Galt from Quebec, the latter representing the English-speaking people of that province. Mr. Brown did not take office, but the Reformers of Ontario who supported the new government were represented by Messrs. Howland and McDougall. Dr. Tupper did not enter the ministry until later. The first appointments to the Senate were made from Conservatives and Reformers in equal numbers. The elections

to the House of Commons returned a large majority of supporters of the government everywhere except in Nova Scotia. The opposition, skilfully led by Howe, swept that province, Dr. Tupper being the only Confederate elected.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXVIII

1. **Early advocates of Confederation.**
   Sewell, Durham, Howe, Galt.
2. **The Charlottetown Conference.**
3. **The Quebec Conference adopts scheme of union.**
   a. Acceptance by Canada and Nova Scotia.
   b. Rejection by New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland.
4. **The desire for Confederation strengthened by**
   a. the hostility of the United States ;
   b. danger arising from Fenian raids ;
   c. the influence of the British government.
5. **New Brunswick declares in favour of Confederation.**
6. **Confederation carried, 1867.**
   a. The London Conference.
   b. The B. N. A. Act passed.
   c. The Dominion organized.
   Lord Monck, governor-general ;
   Sir John A. Macdonald, premier of a ministry formed of both parties.

General Questions

1. Trace the history of the idea of the Confederation of the British-American provinces.
2. What influences brought the provinces into Confederation ?
3. In what way was Confederation a remedy for the sectional troubles of Upper and Lower Canada ?
4. Name the statesmen who took the most active part in carrying Confederation.

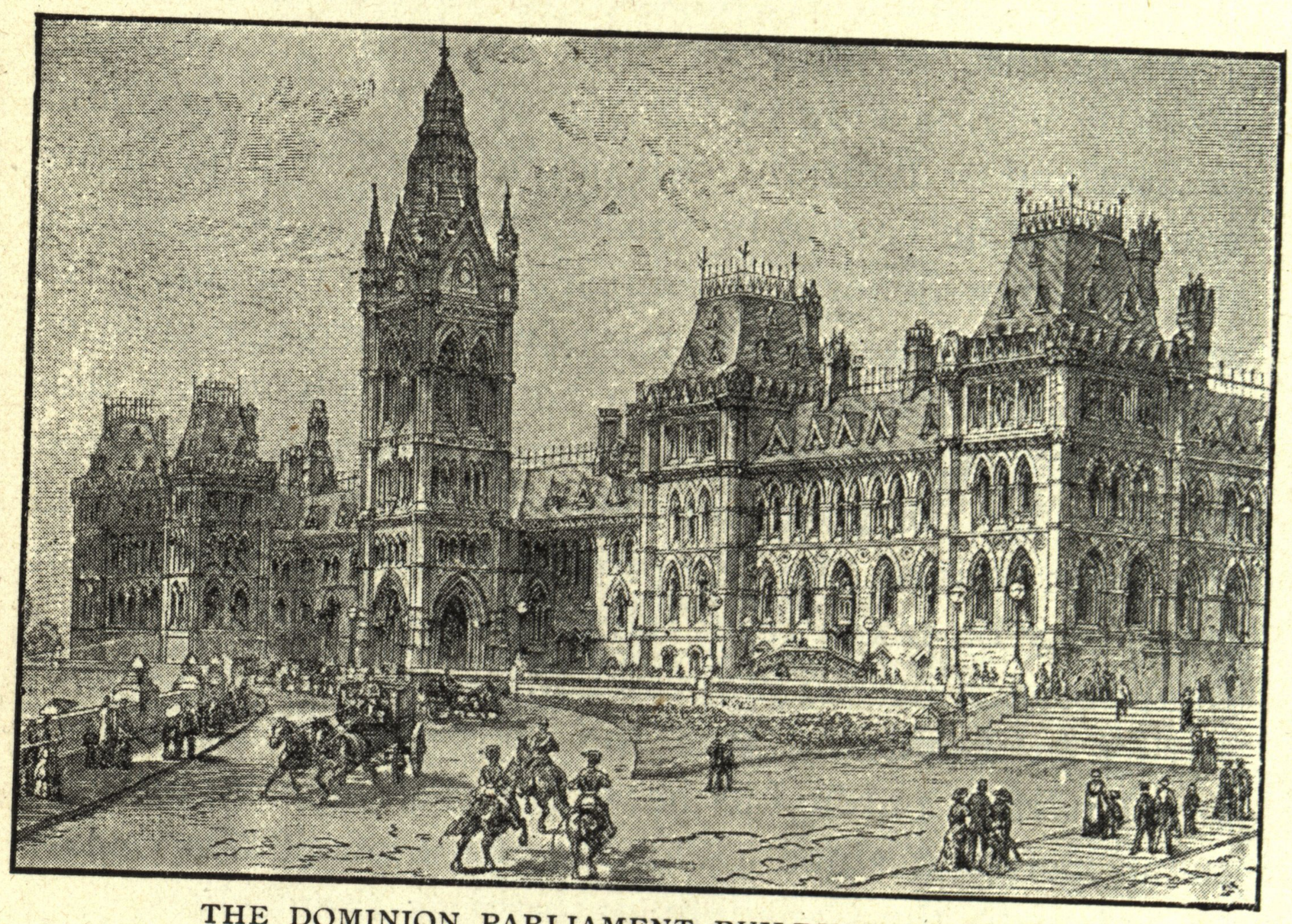
CHAPTER XXXIX

HOW CANADA IS GOVERNED

The authority of the Imperial Government. — The people of Canada are subject to various authorities. The highest is that of the Imperial government. Edward VII. is king of Canada as well as of England or Scotland or Ireland. All public acts are done in his name. As he cannot be present in person, he appoints the governor-general to represent him in Canada. He and his counsellors retain the power to arrange treaties between Canada and foreign nations. They may disallow any act of the Canadian parliament, referred to them by the governor-general, which would harm the interests of the Empire as a whole. Important cases may be taken from the Canadian law-courts for a final decision by the judges of the King's Privy Council sitting in London. But the above constitute a very small part of public business, for the Imperial government has long since yielded control of affairs purely Canadian to the Canadian authorities themselves.

The authority of the Dominion Government.—The British North America Act gives to the Dominion government charge of all public business which concerns Canada at large. It has authority over the militia and the defence of the country, commerce, navigation, sea-fisheries, banking and currency, important public works, such as railways and canals, the postal service, criminal law and many other matters. The Dominion government also exercises direct control over those northern and western territories which are yet too thinly populated to have provincial government.

For the conduct of this business the Dominion requires a large revenue. About three-fourths of the total is obtained from two sources, customs duties paid on imports, and excise duties levied on certain articles manufactured in the country, as whisky, beer, tobacco and cigars.

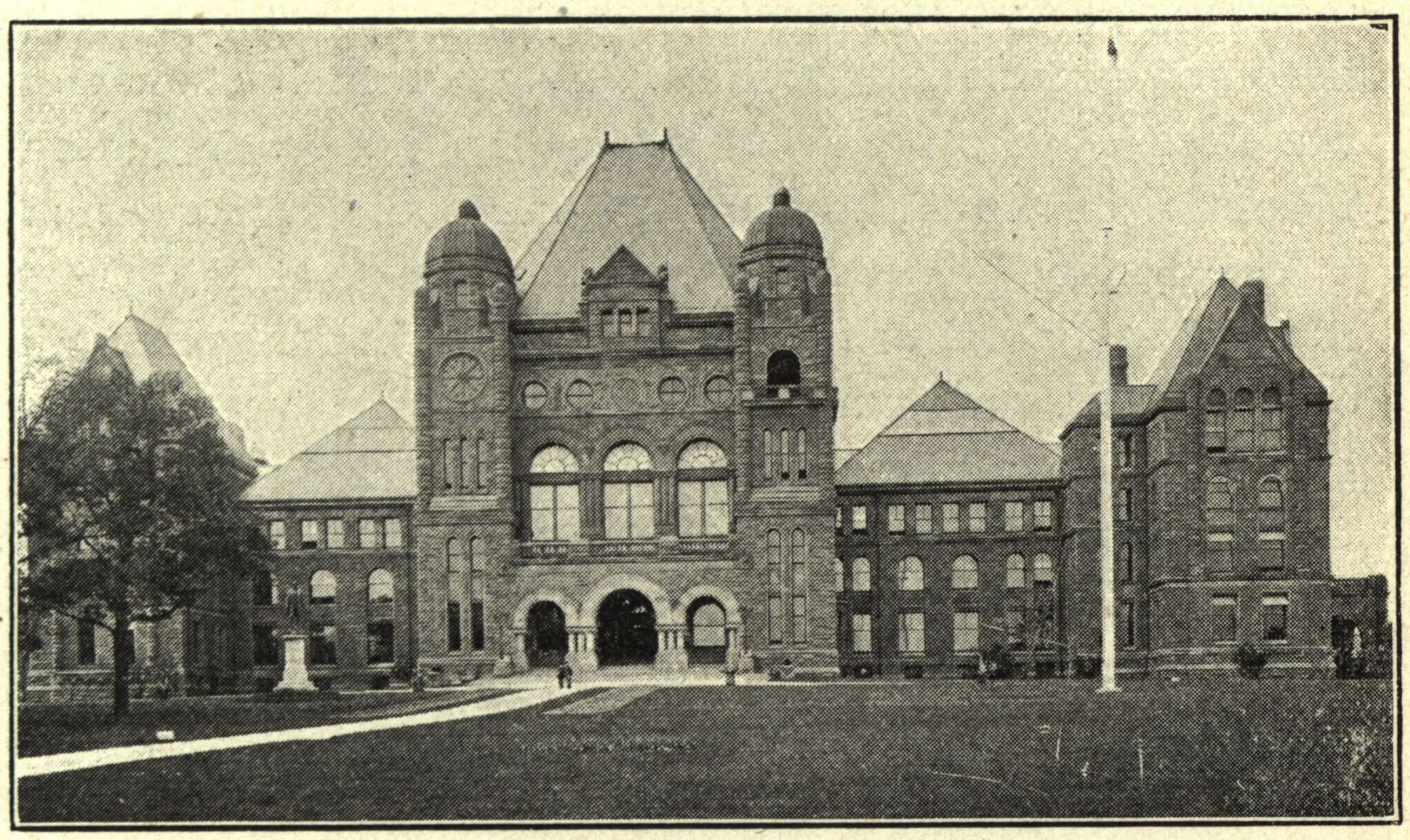


THE DOMINION PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

The authority of Provincial Governments. — The provincial governments have control over public schools, public charities such as hospitals and asylums, public lands, mines, civil law, municipal law, and all other matters which pertain to a province alone. Provincial revenues are chiefly derived from the sale of public lands and of the timber thereon, charges on the products of mines, and from the annual allowance to each province from the Dominion government.

The Constitution of the Dominion Government.—The government of the Dominion consists of four parts—the governor-general, his executive council or cabinet or ministry, the Senate and the House of Commons, the two latter together being called parliament.

The Governor-General.—The governor-general is not only the representative of the Imperial government but is also an official of the Dominion government. He



THE PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS OF ONTARIO.

summons parliament to make laws and to vote money; he *prorogues*, or dismisses it when that business is finished; and he *dissolves*, or ends it when it becomes necessary to have a new House of Commons elected. No measure of parliament can become law until the governor-general signs it. Like the king, he may pardon criminals. He is the commander-in-chief of the military forces of the Dominion; he has general charge of the administration of the laws. But most of these duties are now performed only on the advice of his council, that is, by "the governor-general-in-council."

The Cabinet.—This important body has the management of such public business as the execution of the laws and the expenditure of public money. Each minister has charge of some particular department, such as justice, finance, commerce, public works, etc. For the performance of these duties the cabinet is responsible to parliament. If it loses the confidence of parliament it must resign. The governor-general then asks the leader of the opposing party to form a new cabinet. If he succeeds, he becomes premier, or prime minister, and his selections are then appointed to office by the governor-general. Members of the cabinet must be members of parliament.

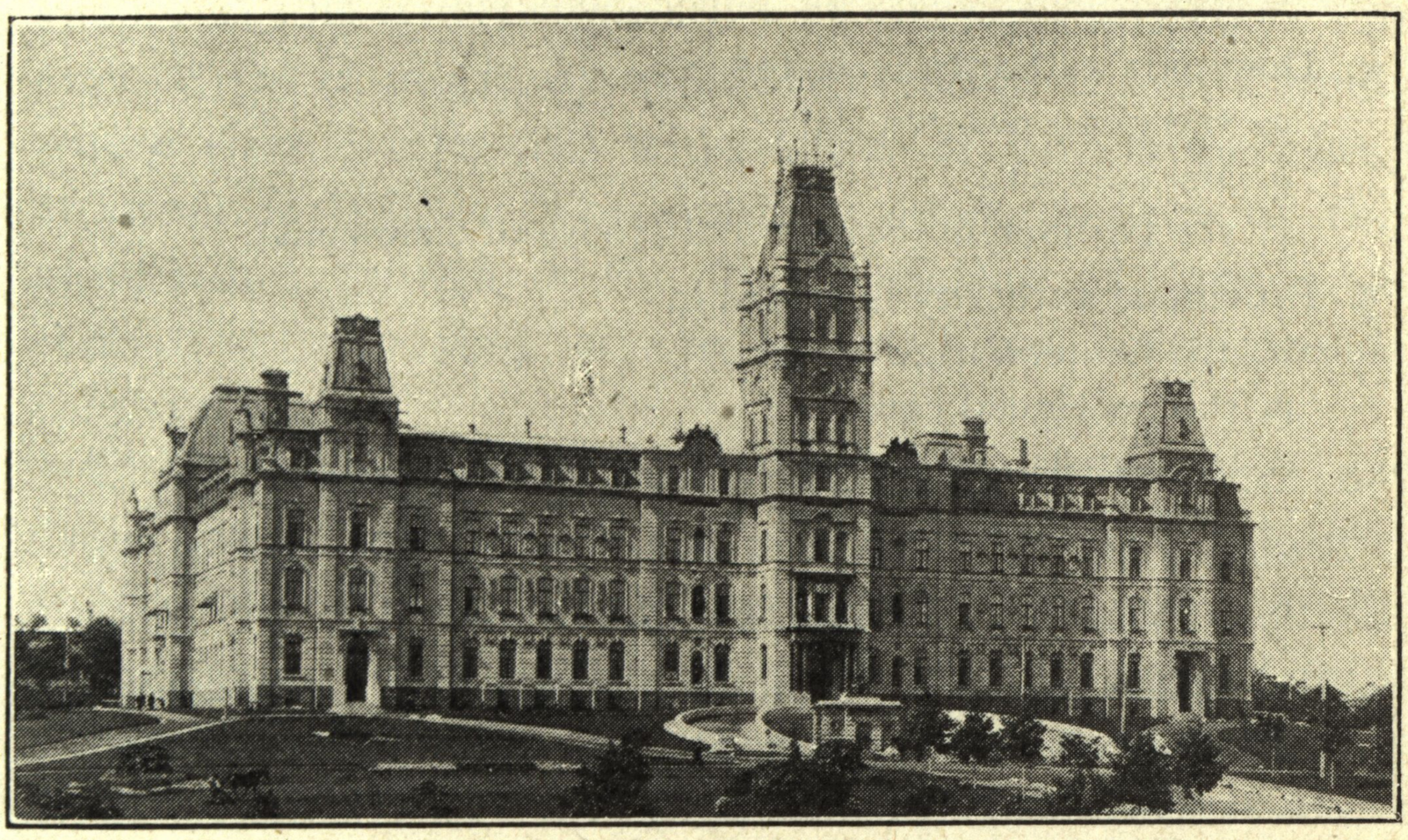
The Senate.—The Senate now consists of eighty-one members appointed for life by the governor-general-in-council. A senator must be at least thirty years of age, and must have property worth $4,000.

The House of Commons.—The members of the House of Commons are elected by the people for a period of five years. The number of members from each province is in proportion to its population. The representation of Quebec is fixed at sixty-five; that of the other provinces must bear the same proportion to their population as sixty-five does to the population of Quebec. The numbers may be changed after every census. The present representation is as follows:—Ontario, eighty-six; Quebec, sixty-five; Nova Scotia, eighteen; New Brunswick, thirteen; Manitoba, ten; British Columbia, seven; Saskatchewan, ten; Alberta, seven; Prince Edward Island, four; and Yukon, one.

Law-making.—A proposal to make a new law or to change an old one is called a bill. A bill may be submitted to either House; it must receive the approval of both Houses three times before being sent to the governor-general. When he signs it, it becomes an Act of

Parliament. He may, however, as we have seen, in certain cases reserve it for the consideration of the Imperial government. Proposals to spend money can be made only by a member of the ministry, and must be first submitted to the House of Commons.

The Constitution of Provincial Governments. — The governments of the provinces resemble in the main that of the Dominion. They consist of a lieutenant-governor,



THE PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS OF QUEBEC.

appointed by the governor-general-in-council; an executive council; a legislative council (in Quebec and Nova Scotia), the members of which are appointed for life by the lieutenant-governor-in-council; and an assembly, elected by the people.

Besides the forms of authority mentioned in this chapter, MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT has been established in most of the provinces. It varies considerably in the different parts of the Dominion, and needs no further description than has already been given (see page 209).

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XXXIX

1. **Imperial authority extends over**
   foreign affairs and other matters concerning the Empire, disputed law cases, etc.
2. **Dominion authority extends over**
   militia and defence, trade, banking and currency, post-office, public works, criminal law, etc.
3. **Provincial authority extends over**
   schools, public charities, public lands, mines, etc.
4. **Dominion authority is vested in**
   a. the governor-general ;
   b. the cabinet ;
   c. the parliament (Senate and House of Commons).
5. **Provincial authority is vested in**
   a. the lieutenant-governor ;
   b. the provincial cabinet ;
   c. the legislature (assembly and, in Quebec and Nova Scotia, the legislative council).

General Questions

1. Name some other countries that have a federal government.
2. What changes were made in the government of Canada by the Quebec Act? by the Constitutional Act? by the Union Act? by the British North America Act?
3. What are the powers of the Dominion cabinet? How are its members selected?
4. Explain the method by which the representation of each province in the House of Commons is fixed.
5. Name the member of the House of Commons and of the provincial assembly for the electoral district in which you live.
6. Name the following:—the governor-general and the prime minister of Canada, the lieutenant-governor and the prime minister of the province in which you live.

CHAPTER XL

GENERAL PROGRESS, 1841–1867

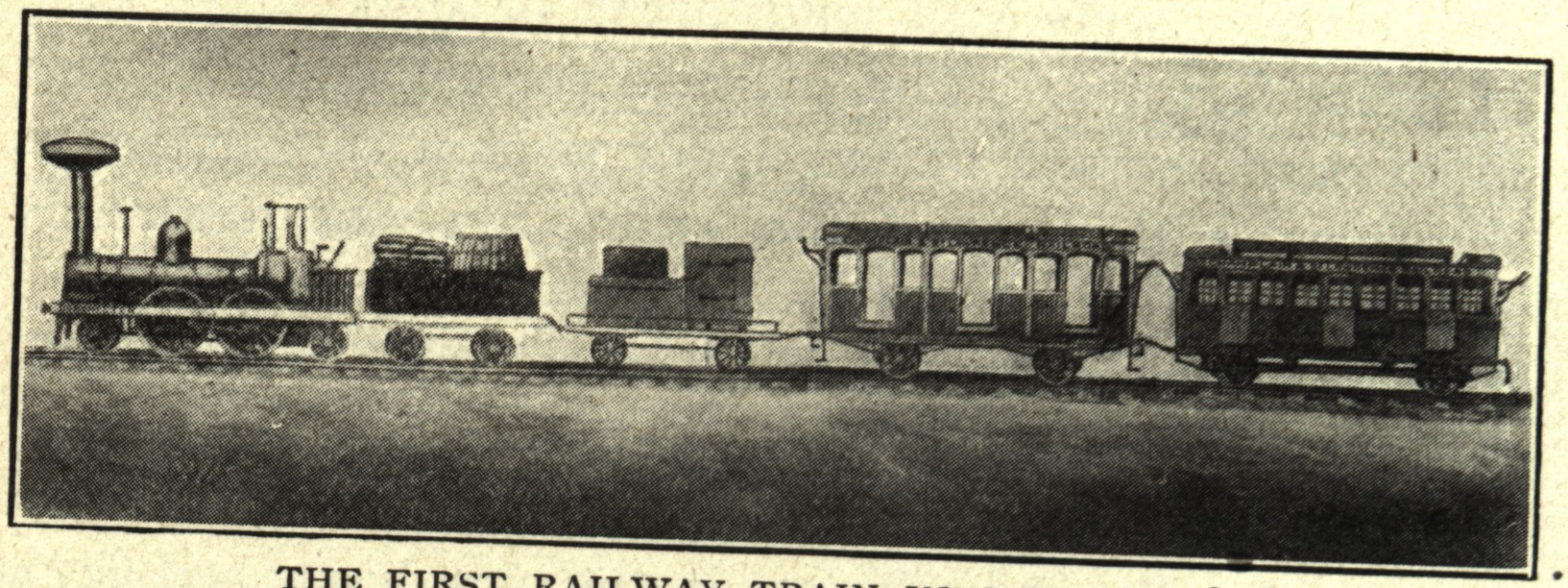
Population.—The increase of population continued to be rapid during this period. In 1867 the number of people in the new Dominion was over 3,300,000. The majority of immigrants were attracted to Upper Canada where there were still wide areas of unoccupied land of great fertility. The political consequences of this more rapid growth of the upper section of Canada, as compared with that of the lower, have been already referred to.

The famine which raged in Ireland from 1845 to 1847 drove great numbers of the people across the Atlantic. In the latter year more than 90,000 reached the St. Lawrence. Fever broke out in the closely-packed ships which brought them, and many thousands died miserably after their arrival. The great majority of the survivors found homes in the cities and towns rather than in the country districts of Canada.

Communications.—A marked improvement was made in the roads of Canada after 1841. This was owing to better methods of construction, and especially to the fact that by the establishment of municipal government they were brought more directly under the control of the people themselves. The completion of the canal system in 1848 has been already mentioned.

But the greatest improvement in communications during this period was effected by the building of railways. The first steam railway was opened in England in 1830 between Liverpool and Manchester. Six years

later the first railway in British North America was in operation between Laprairie on the south side of the St. Lawrence near Montreal, and St. John's on the Richelieu. In 1846 work was begun on a line to connect Montreal and Lachine. These roads, however, were short and comparatively unimportant, and the real beginning of railway building in Canada may be dated from 1851, when Mr. Hincks passed a bill through parliament providing for the construction of a line from the western boundary of Upper Canada to the city of



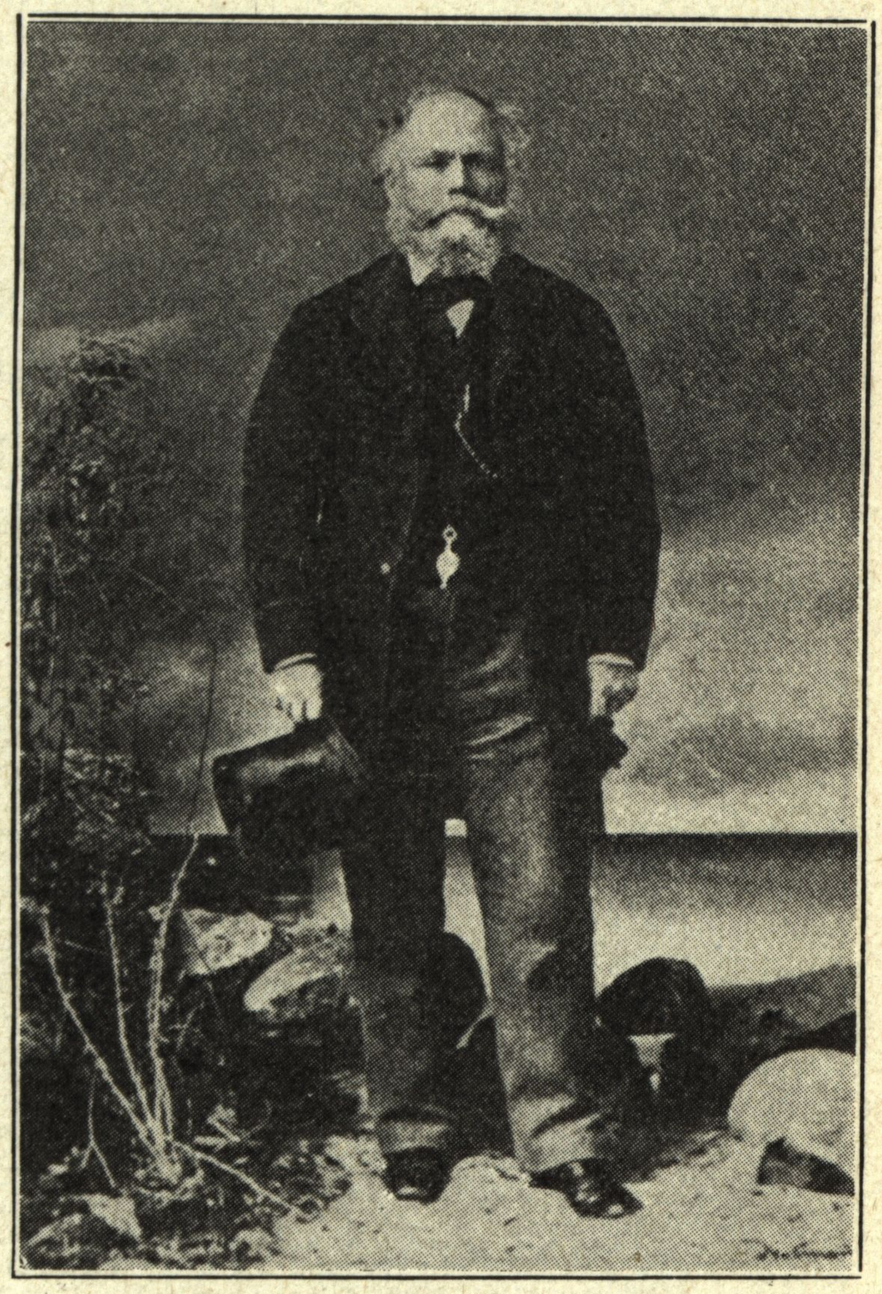
THE FIRST RAILWAY TRAIN IN CANADA, 1836.

Quebec, with a branch to Portland on the Maine coast. The first part of this GRAND TRUNK road was opened in 1853 between Montreal and Portland. This was an event of great importance, inasmuch as it gave Canada for the first time an outlet to the sea in winter. The main line from Sarnia to Quebec was completed in 1856. To Upper Canada especially it was of immense value, and bound the people of the two sections more closely together than ever their political union did. Various shorter railways were afterwards built in all the provinces, so that by 1867 2,150 miles of line were in operation.

The development of trade by the Grand Trunk railway led to the establishment of the ALLAN STEAMSHIP

LINE by Hugh Allan (afterwards Sir Hugh) of Montreal. Starting with six small vessels in 1856, it gave weekly communication with Great Britain from Quebec in summer and from Portland in winter.

Until 1851 the post-office had been under the control of the British government. The service was not satisfactory, and the rates of postage were very high. A letter from Montreal to Toronto cost twenty-five cents, and one to Great Britain a dollar. When the management was transferred to the provincial governments a uniform rate of six cents was established to all places in British North America.

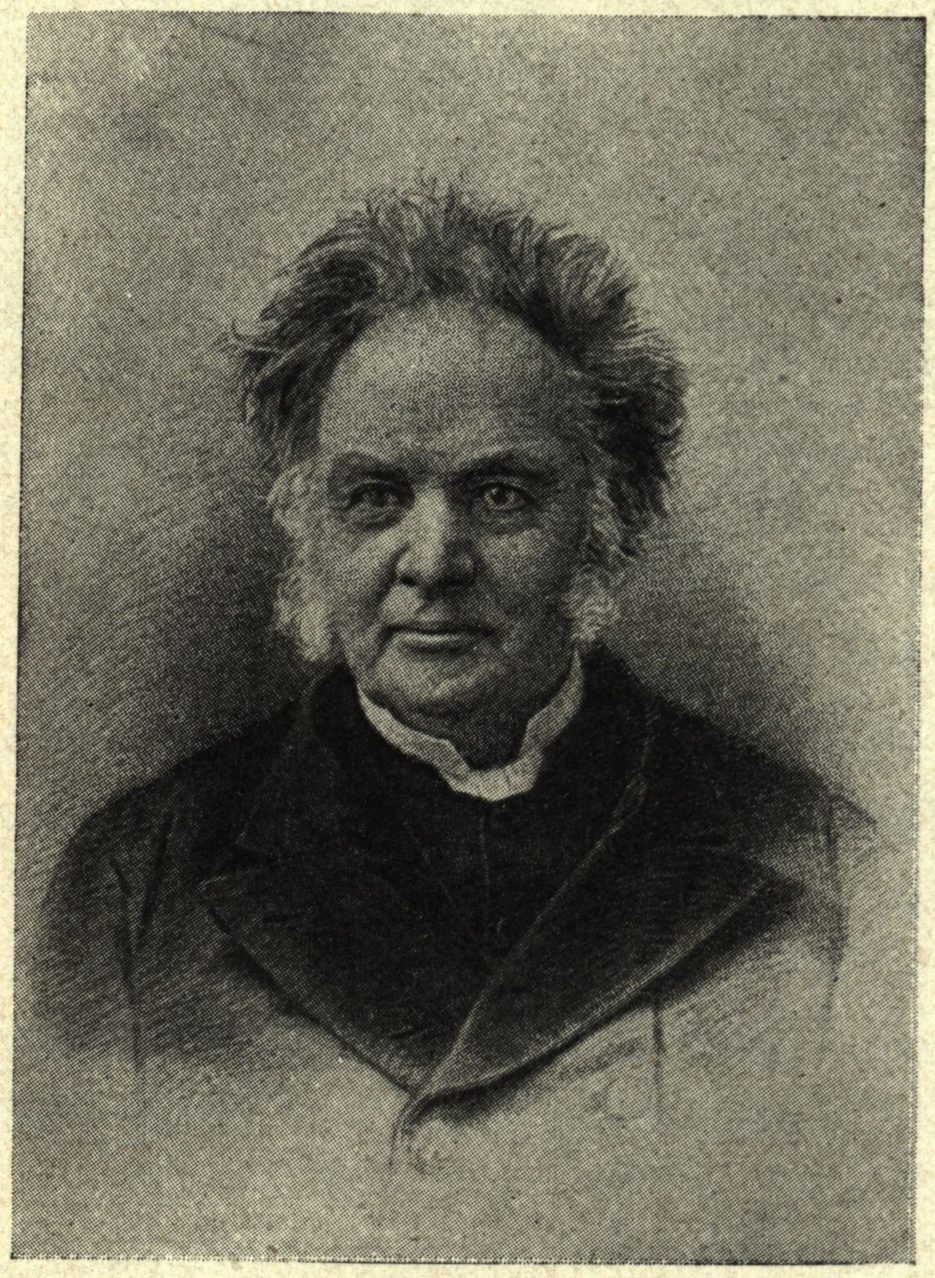


SIR HUGH ALLAN.

In 1858 the first Atlantic cable was laid between Ireland and Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. It soon ceased to work, but in 1866 telegraphic communication with the old world was re-established by a new cable. Most of the many lines which have since been stretched under the Atlantic, land on the shores of Canada.

Education.—We have seen that elementary education in Canada was in a very backward state before the union. But a great improvement was effected by acts passed in 1846 by the Draper ministry, establishing a regular system of common schools in both sections of

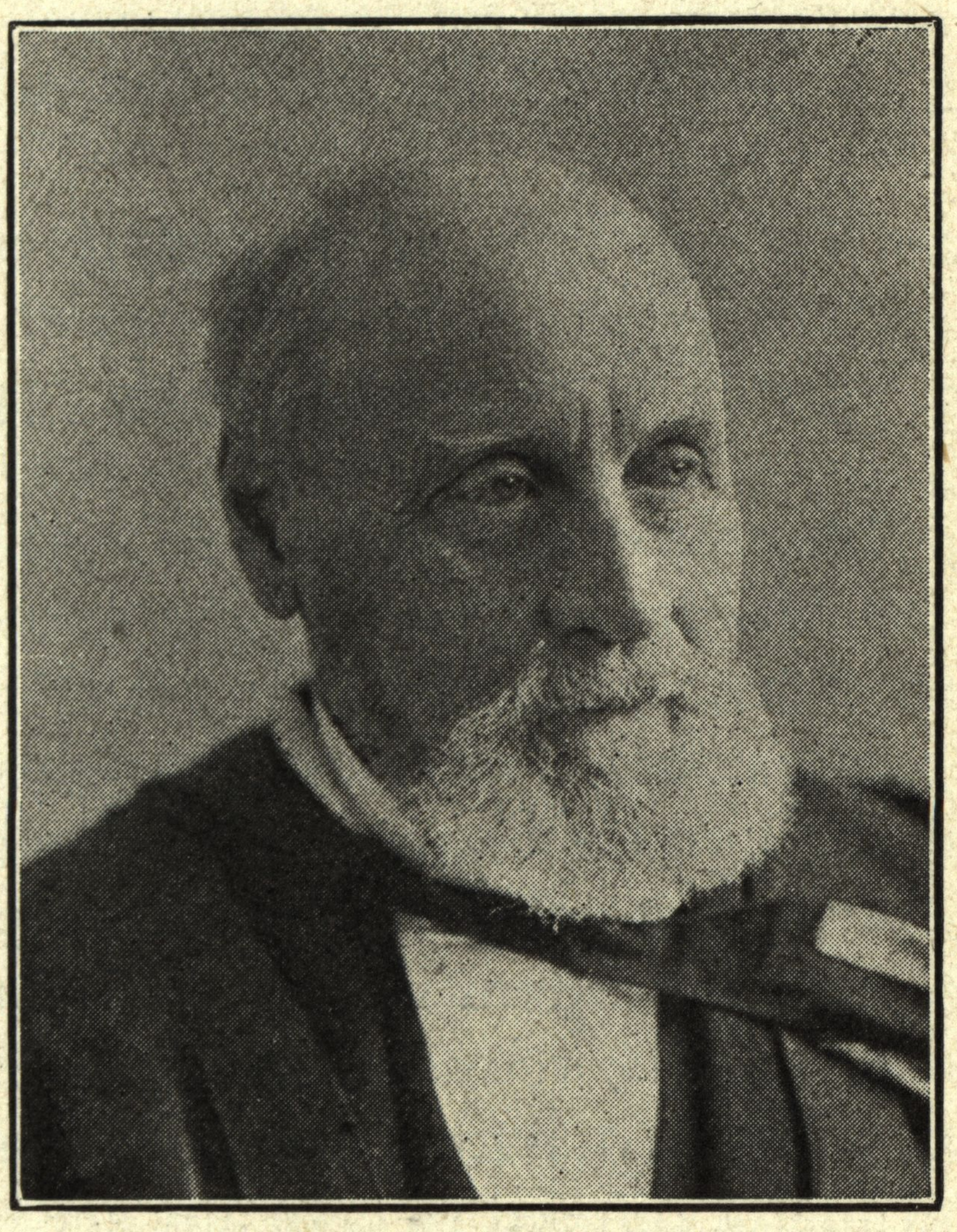
the province. Each district was to have one or more schools, managed by a board of trustees elected by the people. They were to be supported partly by taxes levied on the property of the district and partly by grants from the provincial government. Provision was made for the inspection of the schools by government officials. Normal Schools for the better training of teachers were established in Toronto, Quebec and Montreal. The first Superintendent of Education in Lower Canada was DR. MEILLEUR. In Upper Canada that position was filled by DR. EGERTON RYERSON for more than thirty years, and to his energy and ability the success of the educational system of that province is largely due. Free schools were established in Prince Edward Island in 1852. In 1864 Dr. (Sir Charles) Tupper, the leader of the provincial government, gave to Nova Scotia a school system like that of Upper Canada. Under its quickening influence the number of school pupils was doubled in six years. In New Brunswick no important change was made until after Confederation.



DR. EGERTON RYERSON.

Great progress was also made in advanced education. King's College, founded by Bishop Strachan as an

Episcopal institution, became in 1849 the undenominational and provincial UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO. QUEEN'S COLLEGE was established at Kingston, Dalhousie and McGill were reorganized into active life. In 1855 there was appointed to the principalship of the latter institution one who, as Superintendent of Schools, had already done much for education in Nova Scotia, DR. J. WILLIAM DAWSON. Under his management McGill University became one of the most famous institutions of learning in America. His own reputation as a scientist has spread over the world.



SIR J. WILLIAM DAWSON.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XL

1. **Increase of population.**
2. **Improvement in communication.**
   Railways, steam navigation, postal service, electric cables.
3. **Education.**
   Establishment of public school systems in various provinces.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Show the importance of the Grand Trunk Railway in the commercial development of Canada.
2. Name some of the men who have advanced the cause of education in Canada.
3. What authorities have control over the school which you attend?

PART VIII. NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER XLI

THE DOMINION EXTENDED

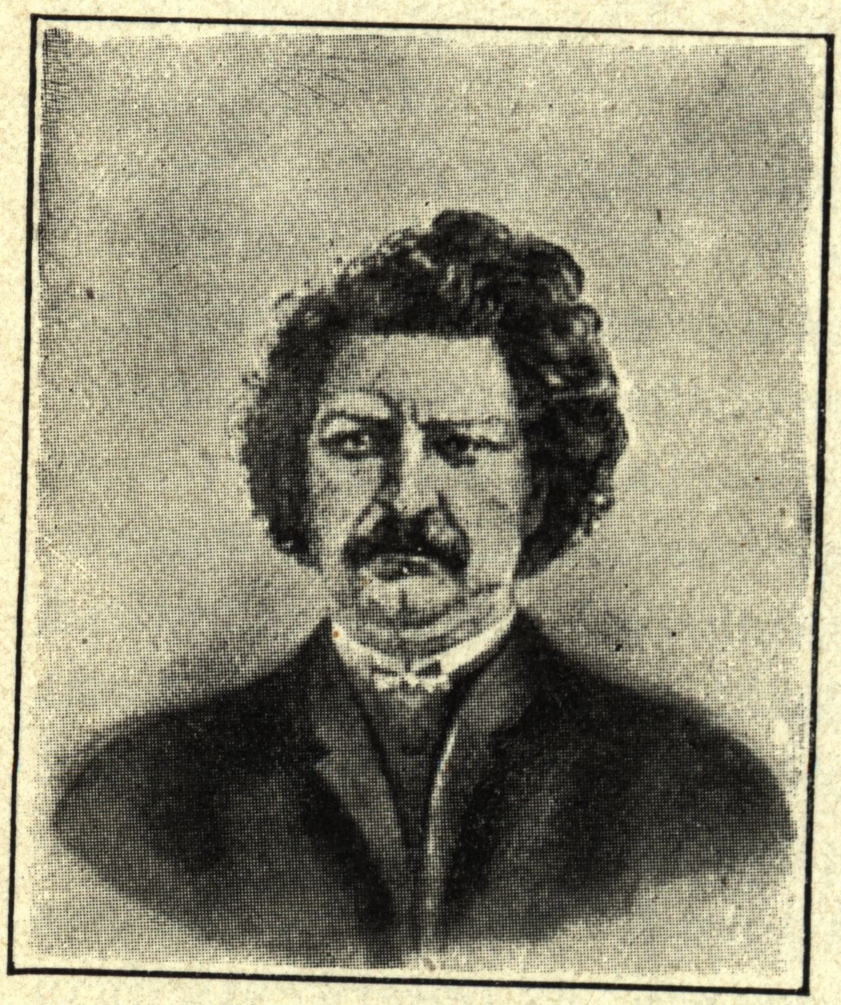
Discontent in Nova Scotia.—One of the first tasks of the Macdonald government was to soothe an agitation in Nova Scotia for a repeal of the union. The Anti-confederates had carried the provincial as well as the Dominion elections, and as soon as they came into office they sent a delegation, headed by Howe, to petition the Crown for separation from the Dominion. Dr. Tupper was sent by the Canadian government to combat their arguments. After hearing both sides, the British government refused to take any action. The extreme party now indulged in wild talk of annexation to the United States. But Howe would have nothing to do with that. Convinced that further opposition was not only useless but also harmful, he laboured now, as he said, only "to make the best of a bad bargain." As one of the chief complaints was that the province had received too small a grant from the Dominion for local government, Sir John A. Macdonald now offered "better terms" in this respect. Howe accepted them for the province, and a seat in the Dominion cabinet for himself. Many of his old supporters now denounced him as a traitor, others approved of his conduct as wise and patriotic. He continued in office until 1873, when he was appointed to the lieutenant-governorship of his native province. His health had failed, however, and he died very shortly after.

In 1868 Lord Monck was succeeded by Sir John Young, afterwards created a peer with the title of LORD LISGAR. During the four years of his stay in Canada he performed the duties of his office with dignity and good judgment.

The North-West acquired, 1869.—The great North-West had remained, for the most part, in the same condition for the past fifty years. The Hudson's Bay Company still maintained a monopoly of the fur-trade, discouraging settlement and concealing the agricultural wealth of the land. Nevertheless the value of the country was gradually becoming known, and the Dominion government was anxious to obtain possession of the whole region, especially as the United States had recently acquired the Russian territory of Alaska in the far north-west. The British government exerted its influence on the Company, and in 1869 the latter consented to cede to Canada its rights in the territory for £300,000. It was to retain its trading posts, as well as one-twentieth of the land in the fertile region lying south of the Saskatchewan River. The Hon. William McDougall, who had long taken a great interest in the North-West, was made its first governor. With a small party he at once set out by way of the United States for Fort Garry, which was to be the seat of government for the territory. On his arrival at the frontier of the Red River district he was, to his great astonishment, prevented from entering by an armed band of the half-breed inhabitants.

The Red River Rebellion, 1869–1870.—The transfer of the country to the Canadian government had aroused the alarm and anger of the French half-breeds who had settled in considerable numbers on the banks of the Red River. Union with Canada, they thought, meant the coming of settlers, the decrease of game and the imposition

of taxes. Canadian surveyors were already at work running lines through their settlements, and the ignorant occupants feared that the loss of their lands would follow. Their excitement was fanned into rebellion by the craft and ambition of LOUIS RIEL. He had received more education than his half-breed countrymen, but his judgment was weak, and his temper violent. He formed a "provisional government," turned back the Canadian officials, as we have seen, seized the Hudson's Bay post of Fort Garry, and acted as master of the country. His orders were unhesitatingly obeyed by the French half-breeds. The Scotch half-breeds sympathized to some extent with his aims, but did not join him. The Company's officials, angry at the change of ownership, did not interfere. Governor McDougall was helpless. He called upon the loyal Canadian settlers for aid in establishing his authority, but they were too few to oppose Riel with success. When some of them did take up arms, they were soon overpowered and imprisoned by the rebel leader. Mr. McDougall, deeply disappointed, turned homeward.

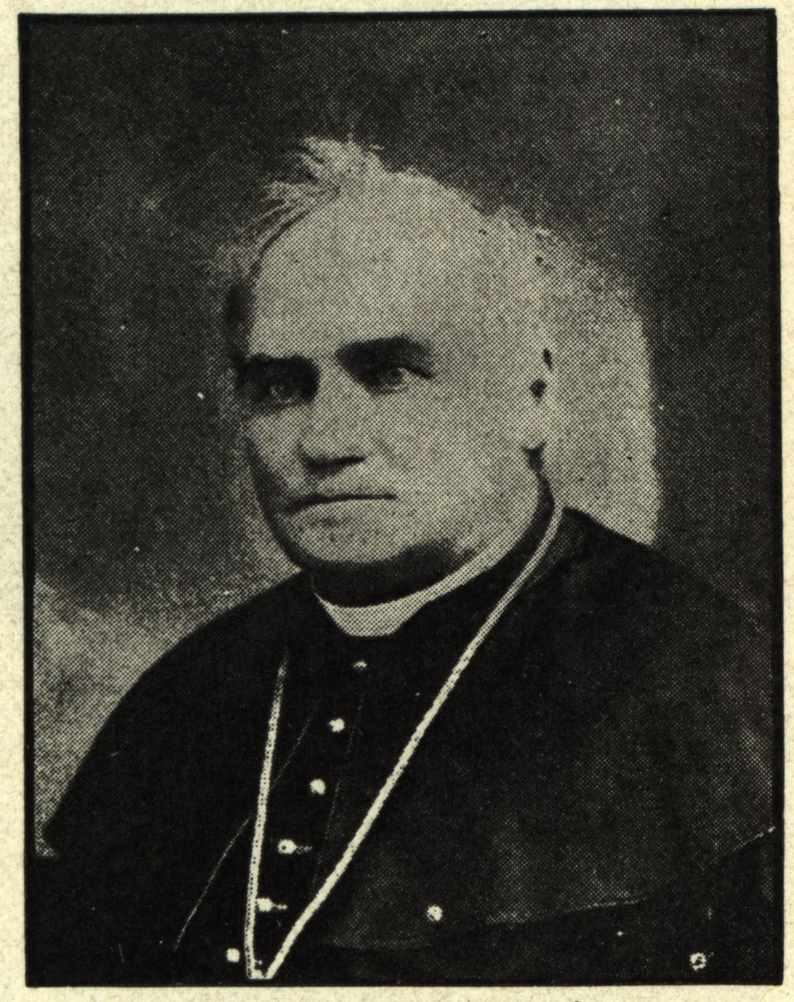


LOUIS RIEL.

The Murder of Scott. — Riel kept his prisoners in close confinement. But DR. SHULTZ, who afterwards became governor of Manitoba, escaped. After making his way on snow-shoes for five hundred miles through the forests of Minnesota to the settlements on Lake

Superior, he at last reached Canada. Another prisoner, Thomas Scott, boldly defied Riel's authority. The latter, in a rage, ordered his execution, and it was almost immediately carried out in a most barbarous manner.

Archbishop Taché as peacemaker.—As soon as the news of the outbreak reached the Canadian government, they sent to Rome for Archbishop Taché, who during his long residence among the half-breeds had obtained an unbounded influence over them. Through him the government promised the rebels forgiveness for past offences if they would submit to the authority of Canada. This offer did not refer to Riel's murder of Scott, as that crime had not then been committed. Nevertheless the Archbishop included it in the general pardon issued on his arrival. Riel now freed his remaining prisoners, and an uneasy quiet again settled upon the country.



ARCHBISHOP TACHÉ.

Wolseley's Expedition.—Scott's murder caused the utmost indignation throughout Canada, particularly in Ontario, his former home. In Quebec this feeling was tempered with a certain amount of sympathy with the half-breeds. In order to restore its authority, the Dominion government now despatched to the Red River a force consisting partly of regulars and partly of Canadian volunteers, with Col. Wolseley of the

British army in command. As armed troops would not be permitted to pass through American territory, the expedition took the old fur-traders' route westward from Lake Superior. Nearly three months were consumed by the journey from Toronto. Wolseley reached Fort Garry in August, 1870, without opposition, and Riel fled to avoid capture.

SIR GARNET WOLSELEY.

Manitoba made a province, 1870.—In the meantime the Dominion government had passed an act through parliament erecting the Red River district into the province of Manitoba. It was to be represented in the Canadian parliament by two senators and four members of the House of Commons. Its own government was to be like that of the other provinces. A large area of land was reserved for the settlement of the claims of the half-breeds, and many of their demands were granted. When the new government was established with the Hon. A. G. Archibald as governor, Col. Wolseley and the regular troops returned. The volunteers remained for the winter, and many of them afterwards settled in the country.

The remainder of the North-West continued under the control of the Dominion government. In 1876 those portions to the westward of Manitoba were placed under a lieutenant-governor and a council, an assembly with

limited powers being afterwards granted. Finally, in 1905, complete local government was conceded by the creation of the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan.

Fenian Raids.—In 1871 the Fenians, who, during the previous year, had made several petty raids into the Eastern Townships, planned an attack upon the new province. Alarmed at its defenceless condition, Archibald accepted the offer of Riel to rally the half-breeds to his support. Their aid was not needed, however, as the Fenians were dispersed by the troops of the United States before they were able to do any mischief. This action of the governor, in addition to the promises of Archbishop Taché, which were supported by the French of Quebec, made it very difficult to bring Riel to trial for the murder of Scott, although he had returned to Manitoba. He was several times elected to parliament, but was not allowed to take his seat. Afterwards, when declared an outlaw, he retired to the United States.

SIR JAMES DOUGLAS.

British Columbia joins the Dominion, 1871. — On the mainland of British North America there now remained outside the Dominion only British Columbia. The discovery of gold along the Fraser River in 1857 had attracted crowds of miners from the United States. To secure the proper enforcement of law and justice, the region between the Rocky Mountains and the sea was erected into a province in

1858. James (afterwards Sir James) Douglas, who had long been the representative of the Hudson's Bay Company on the Pacific Coast, was the first governor. Eight years later Vancouver Island was annexed to the province. In 1871 British Columbia expressed a desire to unite with Canada, and was welcomed with open arms. Although the population of the new province was small, she brought to the Dominion rich stores of wealth in her forests, mines and fisheries. She afforded, too, an outlet to the Pacific and the opportunity to share in the trade of Eastern Asia. But before that opportunity could be taken, and before there could be any real union between the provinces of the East and those of the West, it was necessary to construct a Canadian railway from ocean to ocean. As one of the terms of union with British Columbia, the government of the Dominion agreed to begin such a work within two years, and to finish it within ten.

The Treaty of Washington, 1871.—During the past few years a number of disputes had arisen between Canada and the United States. After the termination of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866, Americans continued to fish in Canadian waters in spite of the protests of the Dominion government. When, at last, cruisers began to seize vessels caught trespassing, there was a great outcry in the United States. Both claimed and both had occupied the island of San Juan lying in the Strait of Juan De Fuca. Finally, there were the claims of the United States against Great Britain for damage done by the steamship *Alabama*, and the claims of Canada against the United States for damage done by the Fenians.

Commissioners met at Washington in 1871 to reach a settlement on these questions. One of the British representatives was Sir John A. Macdonald, appointed

to watch over the interests of Canada. In the agreement finally reached, Canada granted to Americans the use of the St. Lawrence and its canals in return for the free navigation of the Yukon River and Lake Michigan. Canadian fish were to be admitted free into the United States, and the waters of each country were to be open to the fishermen of the other for a period of twelve years. As the Canadian fisheries were much the more valuable, the United States consented to pay for their use a sum to be fixed by arbitration. In 1877 a court sitting at Halifax agreed upon $5,500,000 as a fair amount.

In spite of the protests of Sir John A. Macdonald, Canada was forced to drop her Fenian claims; but the *Alabama* claims were submitted to arbitration. A tribunal, in which various foreign nations were represented, afterwards met in Switzerland and awarded the United States the sum of $15,500,000. The question of the ownership of San Juan was left to the Emperor of Germany, who decided that it should belong to the United States.

Sir John A. Macdonald's agreement to those terms which affected Canada was subject to the approval of her parliament. He was able to secure that approval, although there was a strong feeling that Canadian interests had been sacrificed to secure a treaty.

Prince Edward Island.—The extension of the bounds of the Dominion was completed by the admission of Prince Edward Island in 1873 on terms very favourable to the province. Canada paid a large sum to settle the claims of proprietors who received rents from a large part of the land of the Island. Thus a grievance was removed which had long caused much bitterness, and which had greatly hindered the progress of the country.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XLI

1. **Discontent in Nova Scotia over Confederation softened by the grant of "better terms."**
2. **The North-West acquired, 1869.**
   a. The H. B. Co. yield their rights for $1,500,000.
   b. Rebellion of half-breeds of Red River district,—
   Governor McDougall refused admittance.
   A provisional government formed by Riel.
   Scott murdered by Riel.
   Canadian authority restored by Wolseley's expedition.
   c. Manitoba made a province of the Dominion.
3. **British Columbia joins the Dominion, 1871.**
   The Canadian government agrees to build a railway to Pacific in ten years.
4. **The Treaty of Washington, 1871.**
   a. Reciprocal use of Atlantic fisheries for twelve years.
   b. Free navigation of St. Lawrence and Great Lakes.
   c. Reference of questions of *Alabama* Claims and ownership of San Juan to arbitration.
   These decided in favour of U.S.
5. **Prince Edward Island joins the Dominion, 1873.**

General Questions

1. Write a sketch of Joseph Howe.
2. Explain the causes of the Red River Rebellion.
3. What were the terms of the Treaty of Washington?
4. What provinces have been added to the Dominion since 1867?
5. Who were the following:—Sir James Douglas, Dr. Shultz, Thomas Scott, Archbishop Taché, Col. Wolseley?

CHAPTER XLII

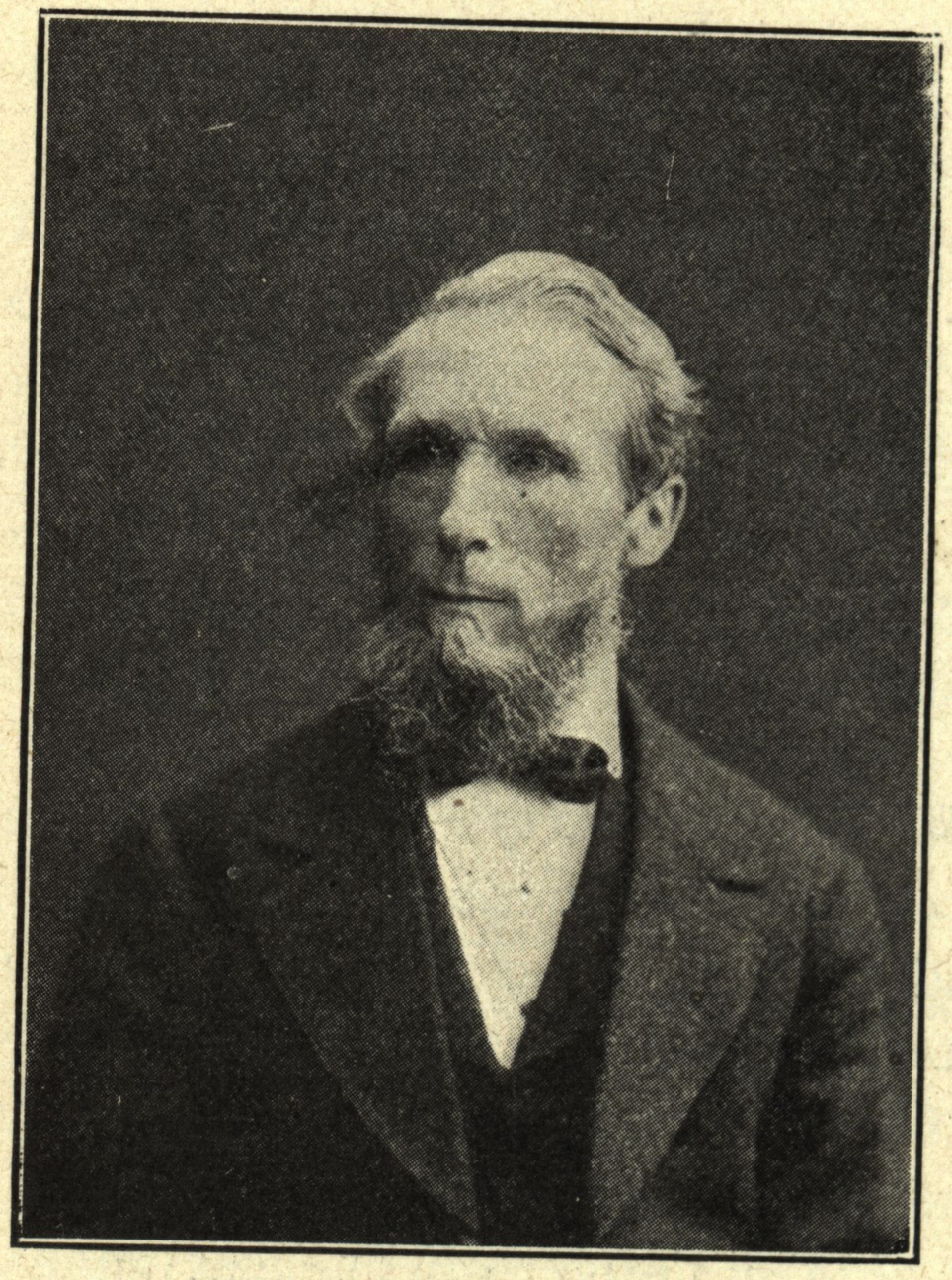
LIBERAL RULE

Lord Dufferin.—In succession to Lord Lisgar came Earl Dufferin, the third governor-general of the Dominion, and one of the strongest and most brilliant of them all. During his term of office he was obliged to deal with many difficult and delicate questions of state, and he dealt with them wisely and successfully. He made it his duty to visit all parts of the country, charming everyone by the grace and kindliness of his manner and by the humour and eloquence of his public speeches.

Growing strength of Liberal Party.—The party in opposition to the Macdonald government, now usually termed LIBERALS, had been weak and unorganized at first, but became united and strong under the leadership of ALEXANDER MACKENZIE. They vigorously contested the elections of 1872 and with much success, especially in Ontario. The government lost many votes in that province because they had not punished Riel, while they were condemned in Quebec because they had not pardoned him. Some people blamed Sir John A. Macdonald for agreeing to the Treaty of Washington. Many others condemned the government for engaging to build a railway to the Pacific in ten years, in the belief that the enterprise would ruin the country financially. The government found their majority reduced in the new House of Commons. They were able, however, to pass through parliament a measure which conferred a charter to build the Pacific

Railway on a company headed by Sir Hugh Allan and which granted them large amounts of money and land.

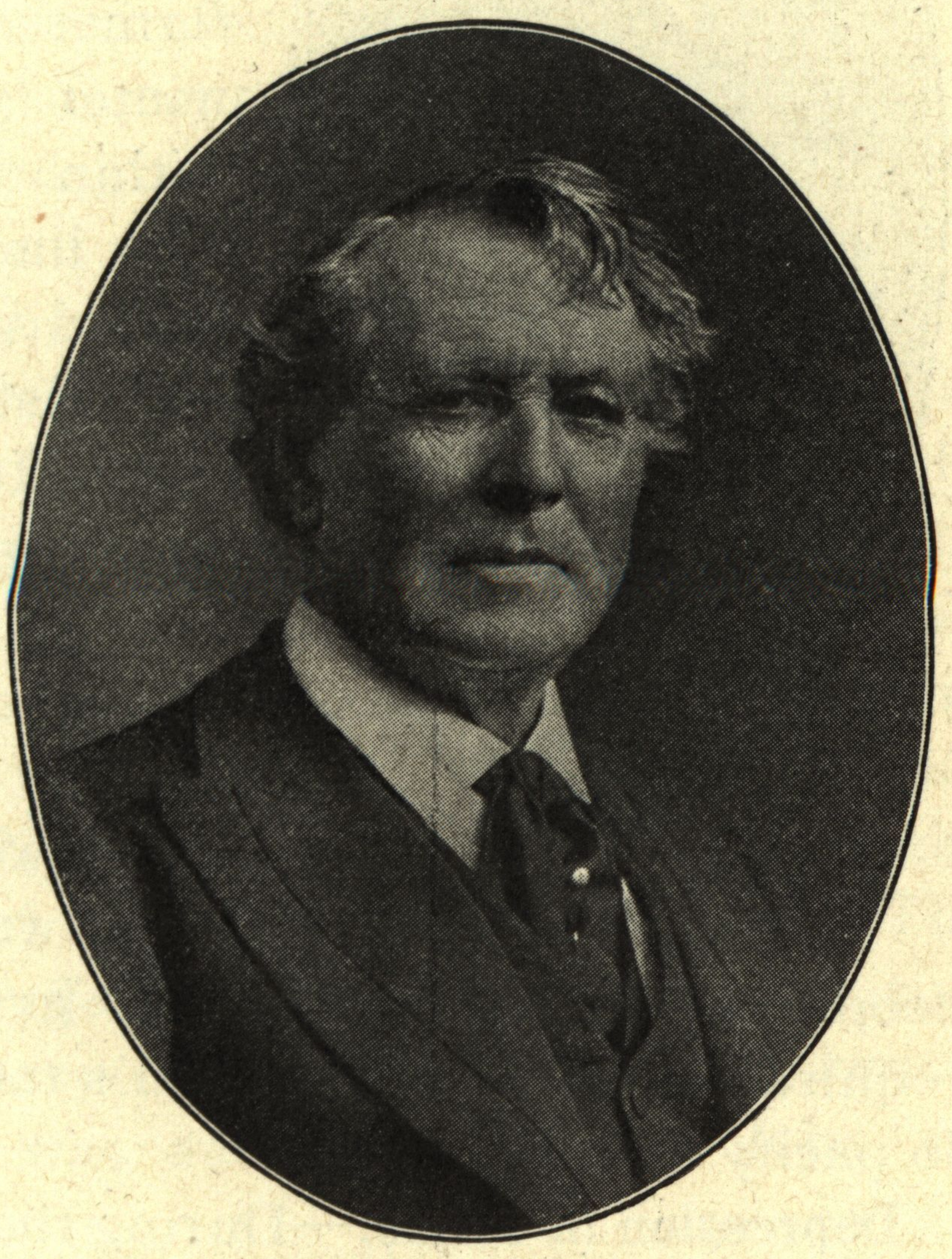
The Pacific Scandal.—In 1873 the country was startled by the grave charge made in parliament by Mr. Huntington, a prominent member of the opposition, that this charter had been secured by bribes to the government. A commission of judges was appointed to examine into the truth of this accusation. It reported that, although there was no evidence to show that the charter had been corruptly granted, Sir Hugh Allan had contributed very large sums to the election funds of the Conservative party, and that some of this money had passed through the hands of several of the ministers. While it was well known that both political parties had long been accustomed to spend large amounts in elections, the acceptance of so much money from a public contractor roused such widespread indignation that the government resigned without waiting for a hostile vote in the Commons.



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE.

The Mackenzie Ministry.—Lord Dufferin called on the leader of the opposition to form a new ministry. Mr. Mackenzie's career shows how much may be accom-

plished by a man of character and determination. Born in humble circumstances, he enjoyed few opportunities during his boyhood in Scotland. At an early age the lad left school to learn the trade of stone-cutting, an occupation which he followed for some time after coming to Upper Canada. In his new home his uprightness, industry and energy soon attracted notice. He took a keen interest in politics, and in 1861 was elected to parliament. He here showed such a wide knowledge of public affairs and such power in debate that he was chosen the leader of the Liberal party after Confederation. Now, six years after, the stonemason became prime minister. Mr. Mackenzie was able to gather into his cabinet a number of able men, *such as Messrs.* DORION and HUNTINGTON of Quebec, and BLAKE and CARTWRIGHT of Ontario. Parliament being dissolved early in 1874, the elections gave the Liberals a great majority in the new House of Commons. The Conservatives, however, controlled the Senate and were thus able to defeat some of the measures proposed by the ministry. Among those which became law was one creating a Supreme Court of Canada to try law cases appealed from the various provinces. Another was the



EDWARD BLAKE.

Ballot Act, enabling men to cast their votes in secret and without interference.

In 1876 the INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY, the building of which by the government was one of the terms of Confederation, was opened from Halifax to Rivière du Loup, where it joined with the Grand Trunk system. It was thus a connecting link between the provinces on the St. Lawrence and those on the Atlantic, and gave the former for the first time a winter outlet to the sea within Canadian territory. The line has since been extended westward to Montreal and eastward to Sydney.

PRINCESS LOUISE.

Sir Hugh Allan's company having given up their charter, Mr. Mackenzie proceeded with the Canadian Pacific road as a government work. Progress, however, was very slow, and the people of British Columbia grew so angry that it required all of Lord Dufferin's tact and persuasiveness to pacify them.

Depression in Trade.—During the rule of the Mackenzie ministry there was a grievous depression in trade in Canada as well as in Britain, the United States and other countries. In previous years, when times were brisk, the production of goods had gradually increased beyond the amount that could be sold. Prices fell, and profits were replaced by losses. Many enterprises

failed, and many labourers and artisans were thrown out of work. The public revenue declined, Mr. (afterwards Sir Richard) Cartwright, the finance minister, being forced to announce, year after year, that it was far exceeded by the public expenditure.

The National Policy and a Liberal Defeat. — As a remedy for these troubles Sir John A. Macdonald proposed to raise the customs duties, or "tariff," on such imports as might be manufactured in Canada. He claimed that this "National Policy," as it was called, would increase public revenue, would protect Canadian manufacturers against unfair competition from the United States and other countries, would thus develop industry at home, and give employment to idle workmen. The government retorted that such a plan would do more harm than good. An increase of duties would cause an increase of prices to consumers, who far outnumbered the producers of manufactured goods. People would buy less, less would be imported and the revenue would not be increased. The people had an opportunity to express their opinions in the general elections which were held in 1878. They thought that the adoption of the National Policy could hardly make conditions worse, and might make them better. The Liberals, therefore, suffered a defeat almost as decisive as that of the Conservatives in 1874. Mr. Mackenzie resigned office and was succeeded by Sir John A. Macdonald.

Shortly after the change of government, Lord Dufferin yielded the governor-general's chair to the MARQUIS OF LORNE. He was accompanied by his wife, the Princess Louise, Queen Victoria's third daughter. Both received a most loyal and enthusiastic welcome from the people of Canada.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XLII

1. Growing strength of the Liberal party.
2. The "Pacific Scandal" overthrows the Macdonald government.
3. The Liberal ministry formed by Mr. Mackenzie.
4. Completion of the Intercolonial railway.
5. Depression in trade.
6. "The National Policy," advocated by the Conservatives, opposed by the Liberals.
7. Defeat of the Mackenzie ministry in the elections of 1878, and the return of Sir John A. Macdonald to power.

General Questions

1. What causes strengthened the Liberal party and brought it into power?
2. Show the commercial and political importance of the Intercolonial railway.
3. What were the arguments used for and against the adoption of the National Policy?

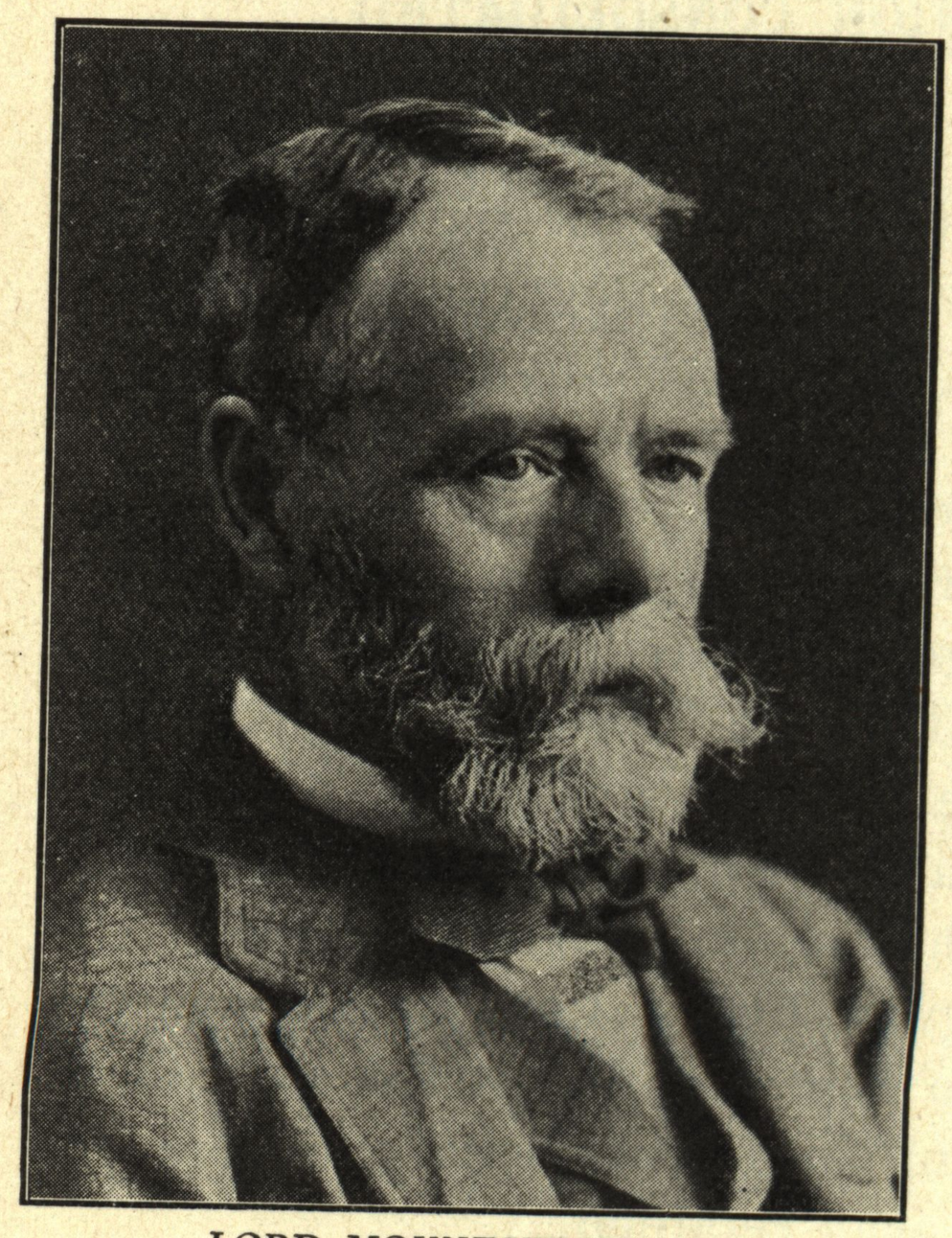
CHAPTER XLIII

THE DOMINION CONSOLIDATED

The National Policy adopted.—When parliament met again in 1879, Mr. (afterwards Sir Leonard) Tilley, the minister of finance in the new government, brought down his *Budget*. In other words, he gave an account of the expenditure of public money for the past year together with a statement of the revenue collected. He also made an estimate of the amount needed for the coming year, and suggested a particular way of raising it. This was, of course, the "protective" policy of a higher tariff. After a long discussion parliament adopted these proposals. An improvement in trade and an increase in the public revenue followed, the credit for which was given by the Conservatives to the National Policy. The Liberals did not fail to point to a similar improvement in Great Britain, where the policy of Free Trade was retained.

The Canadian Pacific Railway.—In 1880 Sir John A. Macdonald announced that the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway would no longer be continued as a government work if a private company could be induced to undertake the task. Before the end of the year an offer was received from a group of capitalists, headed by GEORGE STEPHEN and DONALD A. SMITH of Montreal, to complete the road in ten years, and to operate it thereafter, in return for a grant of $25,000,000 and 25,000,000 acres of prairie land. These terms were accepted by the government and were submitted to parliament. They were finally approved of, in spite

of strong opposition from the Liberals under Mr. Blake, who had succeeded Alexander Mackenzie as leader of the party. The company prosecuted the work with such wonderful energy that they were able to complete it in five years instead of ten. The railway was soon continued eastward from Montreal to St. John, and branches were extended northward and southward from the main line.



LORD MOUNTSTEPHEN.
(George Stephen.)

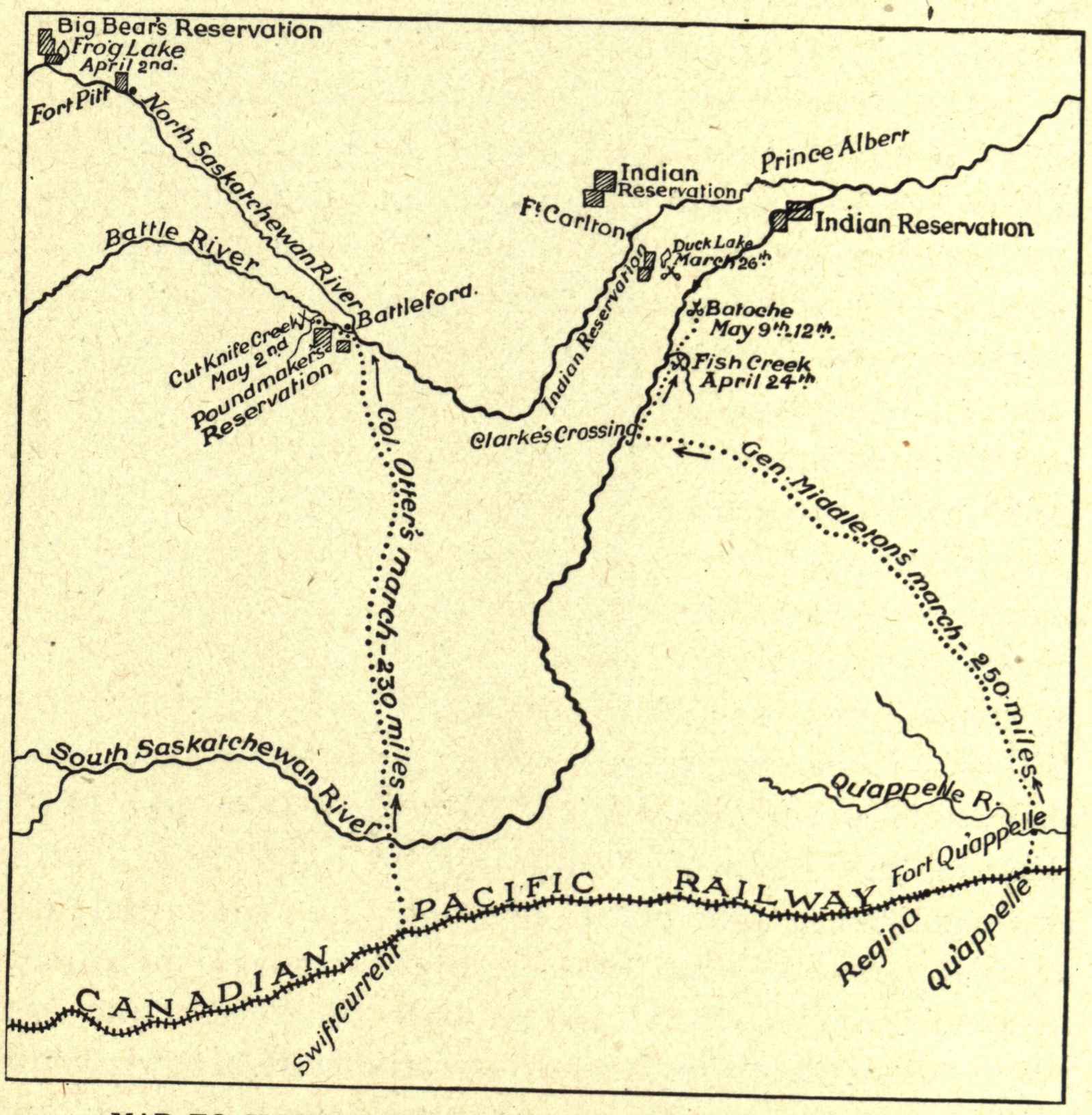
The beneficial effects of the great work were soon seen. It gave access for the first time to the vast and fertile prairies. Over it there soon began to flow an ever-increasing stream of settlers to occupy the vacant lands of the West, and an ever-increasing stream of wheat to supply the needs of eastern Canada and Great Britain. The road, together with its great steamship lines on the Pacific and the Atlantic, has become a connecting link between the ports of eastern Asia and those of western Europe, and is thus one of the most important commercial routes of the Empire.

Before the Pacific Railway was quite completed, its vital importance as a connecting link between the various parts of Canada was strikingly shown by the

occurrences in the North-West, which must now be related.

The Saskatchewan Rebellion.—After the rebellion of 1870 the Red River half-breeds received grants of land from the Dominion government. But most of them sold their rights to immigrants and followed the buffalo herds north-westward to the banks of the Saskatchewan, where a number of their people had already located. When surveyors came to open up the surrounding country for settlement, the half-breeds applied for grants. Their demands were unheeded by the government. It was afterwards explained that most of the petitioners had already received lands in Manitoba, and that Archbishop Taché and other friends of the half-breeds thought it better that they should live on reserves like Indians. But there is no doubt that the government and its officials were very careless and indifferent about the matter. No attempt was made to dispossess the half-breeds, however, or to interfere with them in any way. Still their discontent grew, and in 1884 they sent to the United States for Louis Riel to lead them. Pretending to have large claims against the government himself, he fomented the agitation in the hope that he might compel their payment. Early in 1885, word was received from the government that the demands of the half-breeds would be granted, but nothing was said of Riel's claims. He soon formed a Provisional Government at Batoche, the principal settlement, and persuaded the half-breeds to take up arms. A well-armed body, under GABRIEL DUMONT, seized the government stores at DUCK LAKE, a few miles distant, and repulsed, with heavy loss, a detachment of Mounted Police who were marching to the rescue.

The Indians.—The Mounted Police, numbering five hundred, was the only military force in the entire North-West, and the scattered settlements would have been in serious danger had the various Indian tribes



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE SASKATCHEWAN REBELLION.

declared a general war against the whites, as Riel had urged them to do. They had always been treated justly and kindly by the Dominion government, however, and for the most part were persuaded to remain quiet. But several bands along the North Saskatchewan rose when they heard of the half-breeds' victory at Duck

Lake. One party, under a chief named Big Bear, massacred the settlers at FROG LAKE, and then attacked the little company of Mounted Police at FORT PITT. They were beaten off, but the garrison being too weak to make a long resistance, retreated by boat down the river to BATTLEFORD. Near by there was a strong Indian force under POUNDMAKER, some of whose men had been plundering and murdering in the neighbourhood, but had not yet ventured to attack the town.

Volunteers to the rescue.—Meanwhile Canada had been roused by the defiance of her authority and by the peril of her citizens in the West. There were now no British troops in the country west of Halifax, but thousands of volunteers sprang to arms at the call of the government. It was indeed fortunate that the Canadian Pacific Railway was so near completion as to be able to carry troops rapidly to the West. Delay would have been disastrous, as many of the Indians would undoubtedly have joined Riel, had he been able to gain any further successes. Early in April two columns were ready to march north from the railway into the disturbed district, one under GENERAL MIDDLETON, the commander-in-chief, to strike at Batoche, the other under COL. OTTER, to relieve Battleford.

Batoche captured.—General Middleton's force was the first to move. The route was from Qu'appelle to the South Saskatchewan and down that stream to Batoche, a distance of 250 miles. The half-breeds under Dumont took post at FISH CREEK, which flows through a deep ravine into the Saskatchewan, a few miles from Batoche. The volunteers, unsheltered on the open plain, advanced gallantly to the attack, and suffered severely from the deadly fire of the enemy, who were completely under cover. When night came Dumont

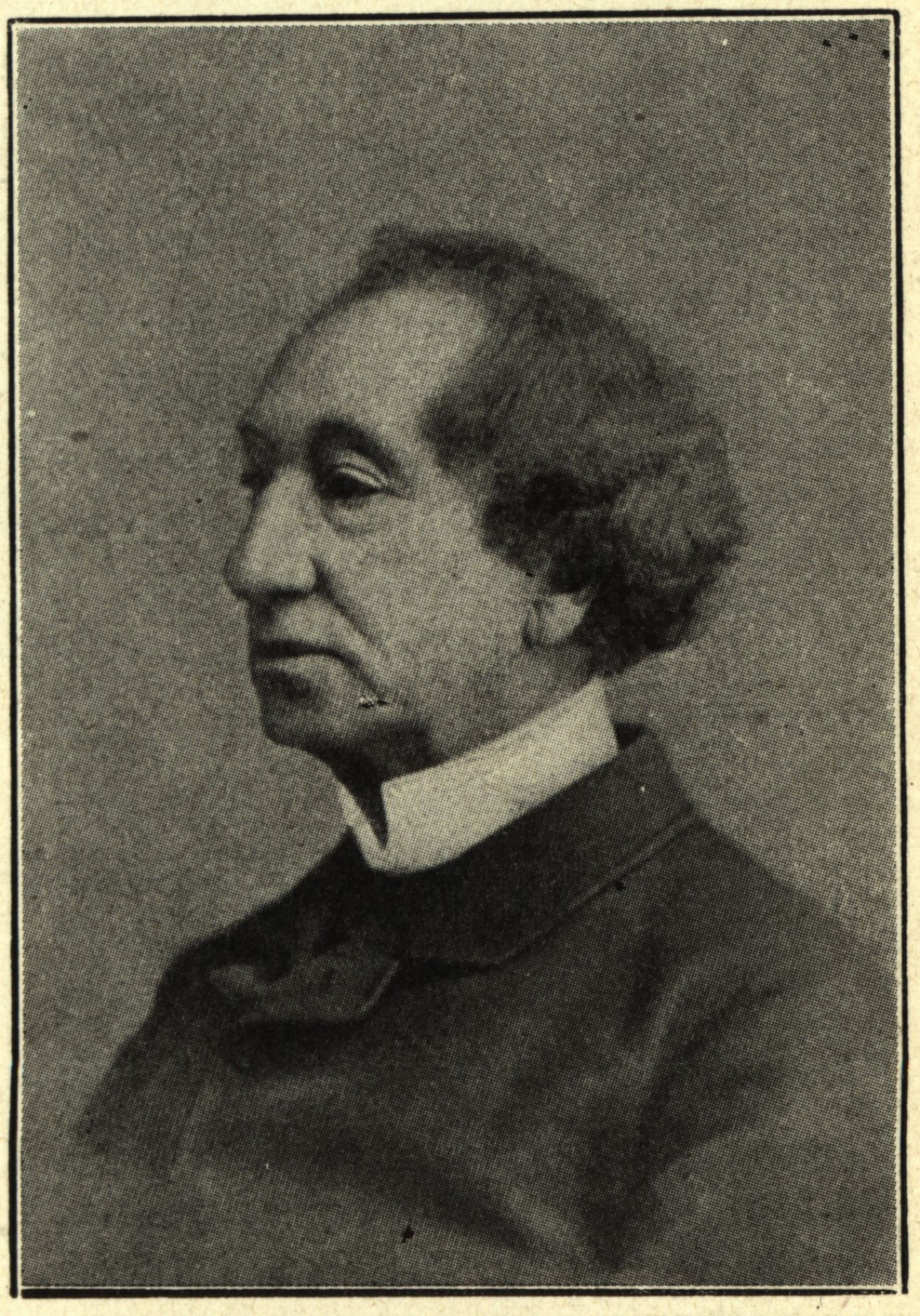
retired. After pausing for supplies and reinforcements, the expedition pushed on to the rebel capital. Enclosed on three sides by the winding Saskatchewan and on the fourth by lines of rifle pits, patches of woods and ravines, the position was a strong one. After three days of skirmishing at long range with the hidden foe, the volunteers stormed the place on the 12th of May at the point of the bayonet, killing and capturing many of the defenders. Riel was taken a few days later. Dumont escaped to the United States.

Battleford relieved. — Meanwhile Col. Otter pushed rapidly forward to the aid of beleaguered Battleford. When he arrived the Indians fled, after doing as much mischief as possible. Col. Otter attacked Poundmaker at CUT KNIFE CREEK, but was unable to wrest a victory from the wily savage. When the news of Riel's overthrow came, Poundmaker was glad to surrender himself and sue for pardon. Big Bear was chased into the northern swamps, whither the troops did not follow him; but when starvation forced his diminished band southward again, he was captured by the Mounted Police.

Results of the Rebellion.—The quelling of the rebellion, thus ended, called forth five thousand citizen soldiers representing all parts of the country. Their united effort for their country's good gave new strength to the influences of sympathy and patriotism which were steadily moulding the scattered provinces of the Dominion into a strong and united whole. The attention of Canadians was drawn, as never before, to the wonderful extent and wealth of their western heritage. To Riel, the author of two rebellions, stern justice was meted out. After a thorough and impartial trial he was found guilty of treason, and was hanged at Regina. French volunteers had fought side by side with their

English fellow-countrymen in crushing the rebellion, but the French people of Quebec brought strong pressure to bear upon the government to save Riel from the gallows. The angry feeling caused by his death showed itself in the elections of 1887, when the Conservatives lost heavily in that province, although they maintained their position in the others.

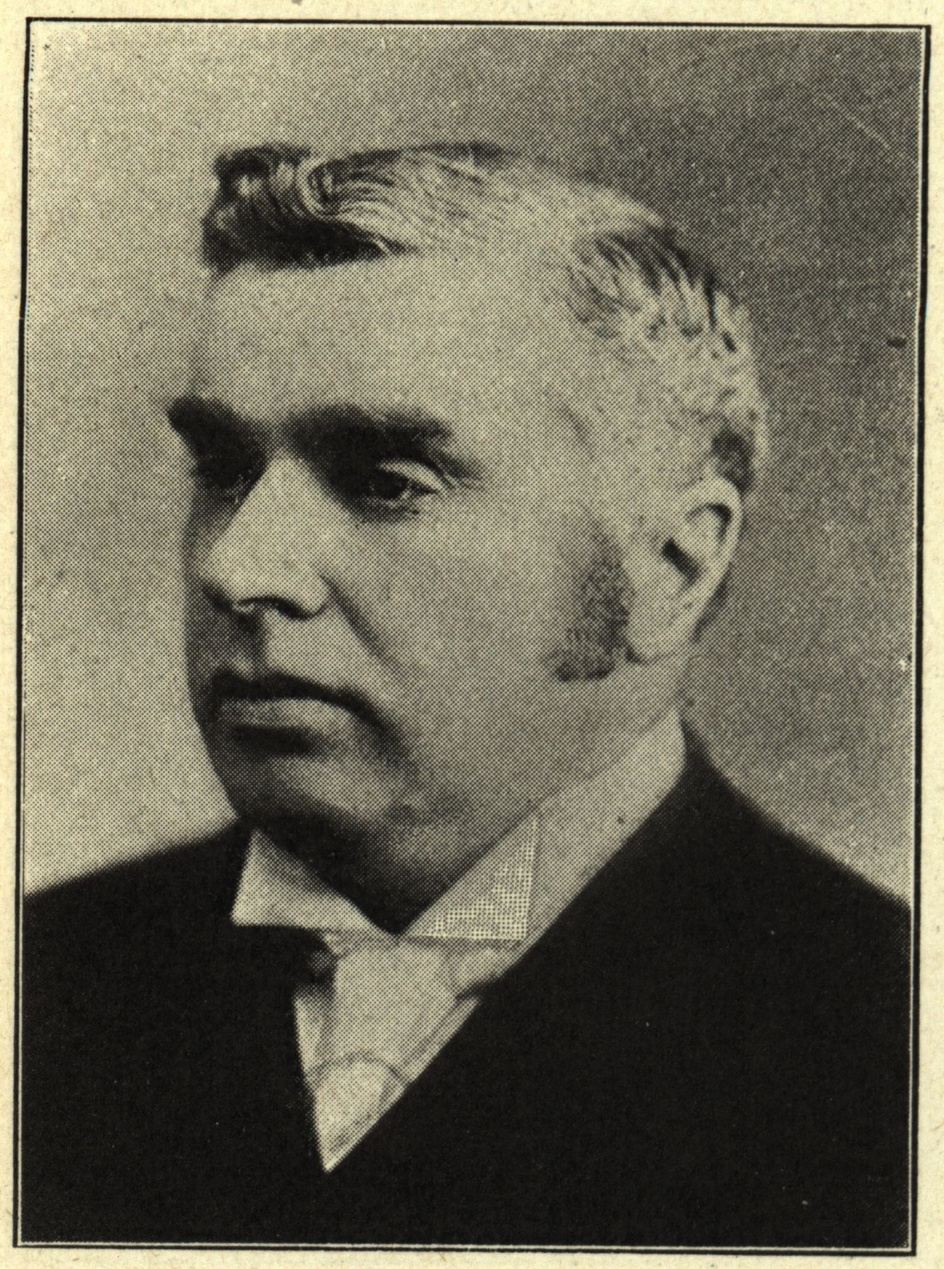
The Death of Sir John A. Macdonald.— In 1888 LORD LANSDOWNE, who had succeeded the Marquis of Lorne as governor-general, gave place to LORD STANLEY. During these changes Sir John A. Macdonald remained the real ruler of the country. But his rule was now nearing its end. The election contest of 1891 was unusually severe. He took an active part in it, again winning a victory. But his strength, over-taxed by the effort, at last gave way, and he died in June of the same year at the age of seventy-seven. His career was a long and brilliantly successful one. For more than thirty years he had been a cabinet minister, and prime minister for more than twenty of them. He passionately loved power, and



THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD.

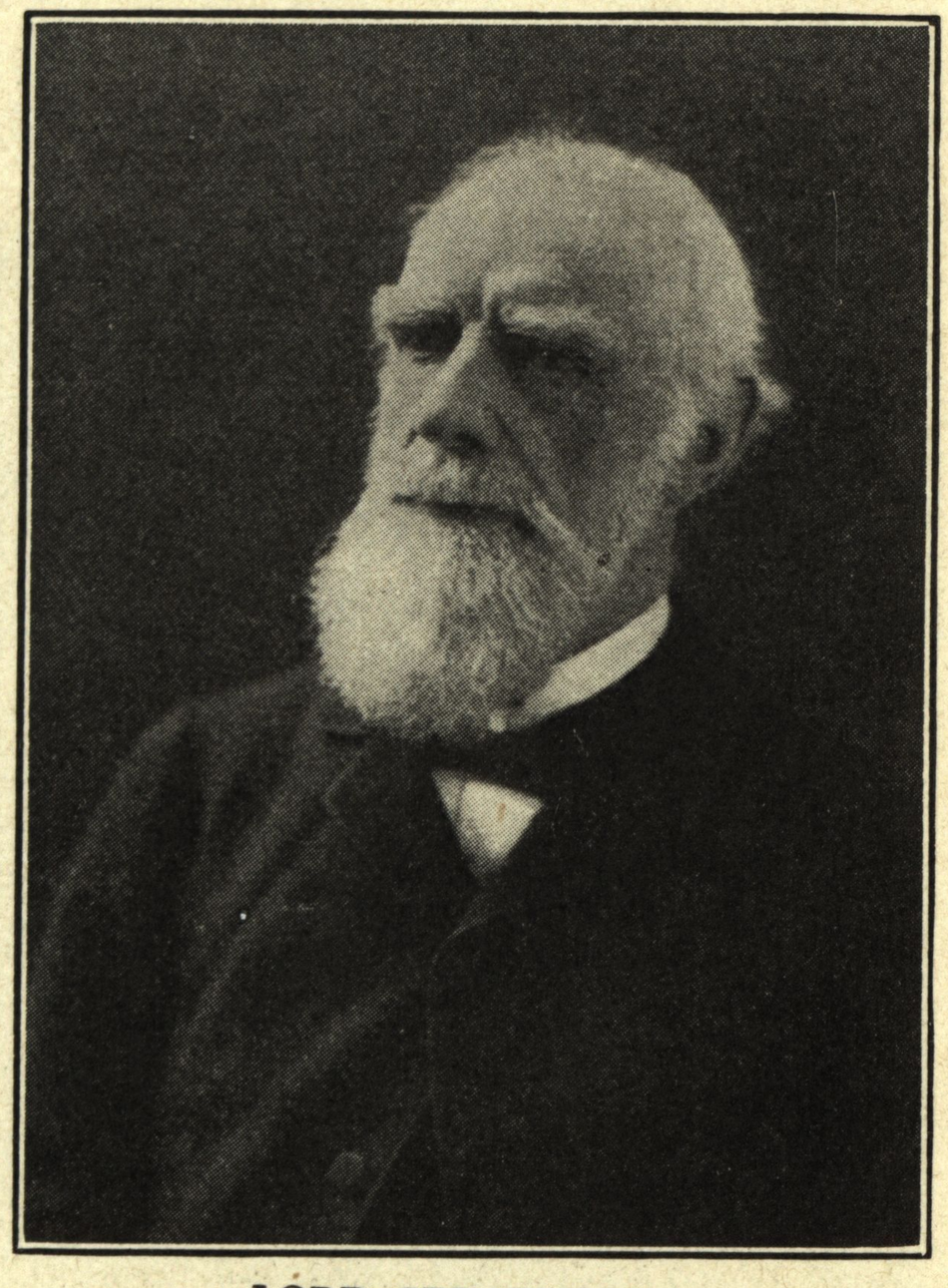
sometimes used questionable means to retain it. But he still more passionately loved his country, in whose great future he had unbounded faith, and in whose best interests, as he understood them, he laboured with unwearied devotion. Among "the makers of Canada" his name will always hold a lofty place. His services to the Empire had been recognized by Queen Victoria, who made him a member of the Imperial Privy Council.

Changes.—Many changes in the ranks of public men followed the death of Sir John A. Macdonald. His former rival, Mr. Mackenzie, whose health had never recovered from the strain of his five years' service as premier, passed away in 1892. Macdonald's successor, SIR JOHN ABBOTT, died a few months later. The next premier was SIR JOHN THOMPSON, a Nova Scotian lawyer, whose high character and fine abilities had quickly brought him into prominence. For his services in the Behring Sea Arbitration (see page 274) he was made a member of the British Privy Council in 1894, but died at Windsor Castle a few hours after he had been sworn in. SIR MACKENZIE BOWELL, a senator from Ontario, now



THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN THOMPSON.

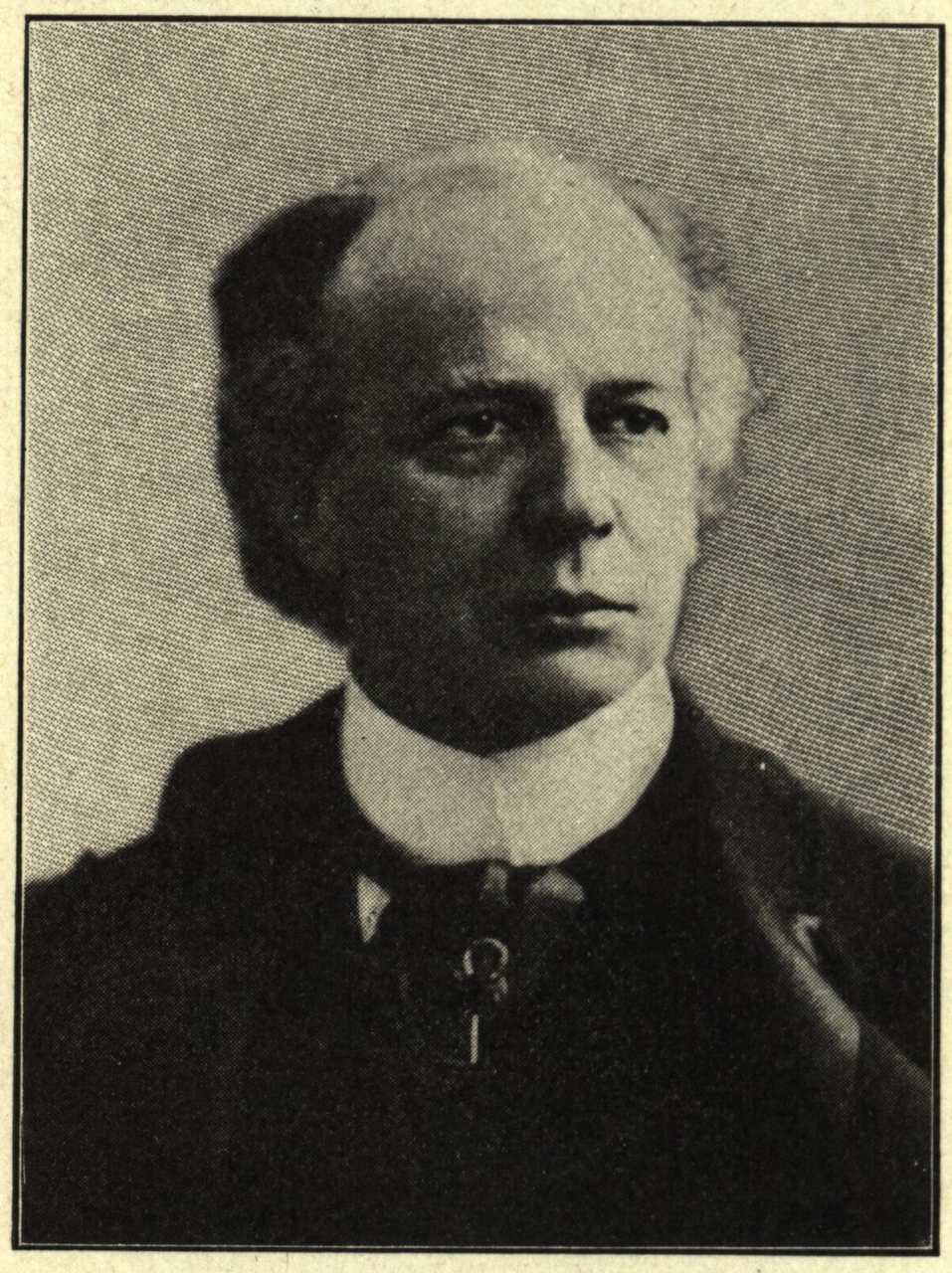
became leader of the government. In 1896 he made way for SIR CHARLES TUPPER, who for some years had been representing Canada in London as High Commissioner. The next occupant of that important office was Donald A. Smith. Through his very active part in the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway and in other great business enterprises, as well as from his princely gifts to charity and education, he had become one of the most prominent citizens of the Dominion. After his appointment to the High Commissionership he was raised to the British House of Peers with the title of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal.



LORD STRATHCONA.
(Donald A. Smith.)

A Liberal triumph.—These changes and losses naturally weakened the Conservative government. Moreover, its reputation suffered from the exposure of abuses which had gradually crept into the management of some of the public departments. Trouble now arose with Manitoba. An act passed by the provincial parliament had abolished separate schools for Roman Catholics. The latter appealed to the Dominion government to have the schools restored, on the ground that they had been guaranteed

by the Manitoba Act of 1870. When the provincial authorities refused to make any concession, the Dominion government introduced a "Remedial Bill" to compel them to do so, but failed to carry it through parliament before the time for dissolution had come. The Liberals strongly opposed the measure as an interference with provincial rights, and so gained support from the English-speaking provinces in the elections of 1896, while the popularity of their leader, WILFRID LAURIER, in his own province of Quebec, gave them a great majority there. On the resignation of the ministry, LORD ABERDEEN, the successor of Lord Stanley, summoned Mr. Laurier to form a new one. He included in it not only his leading supporters in parliament, but also several provincial statesmen of great ability and experience. SIR OLIVER MOWAT, for twenty-four years the premier of Ontario, became minister of justice; W. S. FIELDING, premier of Nova Scotia, was made minister of finance; and A. G. BLAIR, premier of New Brunswick, minister of railways.



THE RIGHT HON. SIR WILFRID LAURIER.

The new prime minister was a French Roman Catholic. Like his predecessor, Macdonald, who was an

English-speaking Protestant, he strove to smooth over sectional and religious jealousy, and to promote the unity of the Canadian people. For such a task he was well fitted by his broad sympathies and the many loveable qualities of his character. He was thus able to settle the Manitoba difficulty. The local government consented to allow Roman Catholic children in public schools to receive instruction in their own religion.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XLIII

1. **Establishment of the "National Policy" by the Macdonald ministry.**
2. **Construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway by private company, 1881–85.**
   Its national importance.
3. **The Saskatchewan Rebellion, 1885.**
   a. Causes.
   b. Half-breeds defeát Mounted Police at **Duck Lake.**
   c. Indian rising on the North Saskatchewan.
   d. Middleton's march.
   Battle of Fish Creek and the capture of Batoche.
   e. Otter's march.
   Relief of Battleford and battle with Poundmaker at Cut Knife Creek.
   f. Surrender of Big Bear.
   g. Results of Rebellion.
4. **The death of Sir John A. Macdonald, 1891.**
5. **Changes in leadership of the Conservative ministry.**
6. **The Liberal triumph and the formation of the Laurier ministry, 1896**
   Settlement of the Manitoba school question.

General Questions

1. Trace the history of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Show its national importance.
2. What were the causes of the Saskatchewan rebellion?
3. Write in your own words a sketch of the career and character of Sir John A. Macdonald.
4. Name the governor-generals and the prime ministers of Canada since Confederation.

CHAPTER XLIV

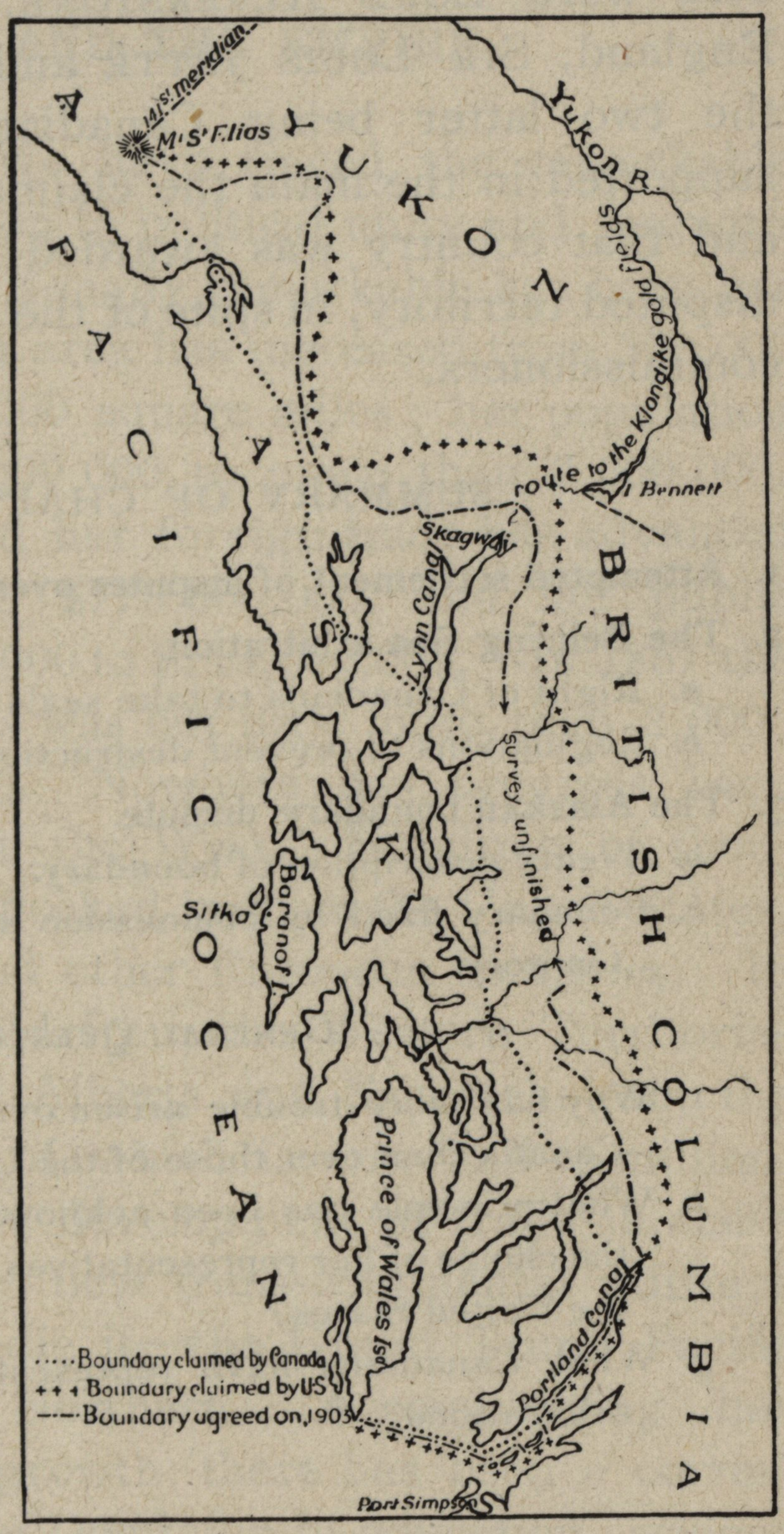
CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

The Atlantic Fisheries.—The fishing privileges in Canadian waters granted to Americans by the Treaty of Washington expired in 1885. The old troubles were soon renewed along the coasts of the Maritime Provinces. In 1887 a new treaty was drawn up, but it failed to secure the approval of the Senate of the United States. Since that date Americans who purchase a licence have been allowed the use of Canadian fisheries.

The Behring Sea Dispute.—Meanwhile the taking of seals in the Behring Sea was a growing industry engaged in by many vessels of both nations. The United States tried to exclude Canadians on the ground that seals visiting the shores of Alaska were American property. A number of vessels which were catching seals many miles from shore were seized. Great Britain strongly upheld the Canadian claim that Behring Sea was open to the world. At last both nations agreed to submit the question to arbitration. The court met at Paris in 1893, Sir John Thompson being one of the British representatives. The decision was in favour of Canada, and obliged the United States to pay damages to the owners of vessels seized. At the same time, both nations were required to enforce certain regulations to prevent the complete destruction of the seal herds.

The Alaskan Boundary.—The purchase of Alaska by the United States and that of the North-West by Canada, opened a dispute as to the boundary between the two territories. By a previous treaty between Great Britain

and Russia, it was agreed that the line should follow the one hundred and forty-first meridian of west longitude from the Arctic Ocean to Mount St. Elias. From that point southward it was to continue along the summit of the mountain range parallel to the sea as far as Portland Channel, or Canal, but at no point was it to be farther than thirty miles from the ocean. The question with regard to this latter section was, what range should be followed, and whether the thirty miles should be measured from the open water beyond the islands which fringe the shore, or from the heads of the narrow inlets which penetrate far inland. The discovery of gold in Alaska and in the Yukon district made a settlement of the boundary more necessary, but more difficult; for the route to the gold fields lay across the disputed territory, and its importance was thereby increased.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY DISPUTE.

The government of the United States refused to leave

the question to the decision of a third party, but in 1903 it was referred to a commission consisting of three representatives from each country. The British members were LORD ALVERSTONE, the Chief Justice of England, SIR LOUIS JETTÉ and A. B. AYLESWORTH, the two latter being Canadians. Lord Alverstone supported in the main the claims of the United States, and that country was awarded the larger part of the disputed territory, in spite of the protest of the Canadian commissioners.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XLIV

1. **Attempted settlement of disputes over Atlantic fisheries.**
2. **The Behring Sea arbitration.**
   - *a.* Right of Canadians to take seals in Behring Sea sustained.
   - *b.* Regulations to prevent destruction of seal herds.
3. **The Alaskan boundary dispute.**
   - *a.* Treaty description of boundary.
   - *b.* Boundary fixed by commission so as to divide the disputed territory.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Why has more trouble arisen over the Atlantic fisheries of Canada than over those of the United States?
2. What principle has been acknowledged by Great Britain in the choice of her representatives for recent arbitrations with the United States?
3. What Canadians have represented their country in such arbitrations?

CHAPTER XLV

CANADA AND THE EMPIRE

General Progress.—We have traced the remarkable growth of the Dominion in political unity and strength since Confederation. Equally remarkable has been her general progress. Her area has increased from 370,000 square miles to 3,500,000 square miles; her population from a little over 3,000,000 to more than 7,000,000. Within the same period her foreign trade has advanced from $131,000,000 to $770,000,000, and her public revenue from $14,000,000 to $118,000,000. In 1867 the mileage of her railways was but little more than 2,000; it is now over 25,000. Nowhere has progress been more marked than in the West. Hundreds of thousands of settlers have flocked in from the United States, from Great Britain and other European countries. In 1905 there were created from the Western Territories the two provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, the combined population of which is now half a million. So rapid has been the development of trade in these western lands that two new trans-continental railways are being built to handle it—the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern. Accompanying her material and political growth, there has been a corresponding advance in the Dominion in education, science and literature, but of these we have not the space to speak. In all respects Canada's development compares favourably with that of the great nations of the world.

Imperial Unity.—Although Canada has become fitted to take her place as an independent nation, she has

GOVERNORS SINCE CONFEDERATION.

shown no desire to sever the ties that bind her to the motherland. The lighter these ties have been made, the stronger they have become. In recent years there has been a noticeable tendency in Canada and in the other great self-governing colonies to draw more closely together around the common centre. In 1894 a Colonial Conference met at Ottawa. Representatives of Great Britain, Canada, Australia and South Africa discussed questions of freer trade and better communications between various parts of the Empire. Two important results followed. The one was the construction of a cable from British Columbia to Australia and New Zealand, so as to give the latter countries telegraphic communication with Canada and Great Britain by an "all red" or purely British route; the other was the action of the Laurier government, which in 1897 reduced the customs tariff on British goods to two-thirds of the rate paid by foreign goods, an example since followed by other colonies.

QUEEN VICTORIA, 1897.

Victoria's Jubilee.—The personal love which the great and good Queen Victoria inspired in her subjects of all races and countries was a strong bond between all parts

of the Empire. That love and that unity were strikingly shown during the ceremonies of the Diamond Jubilee to celebrate the sixtieth year of her reign. In the most remarkable procession that the world has ever seen, representatives from nearly forty lands beyond the seas joined with those of the motherland in escorting the Queen to St. Paul's Cathedral in London to give thanks to God for His blessings upon her long and glorious reign. Mr. Laurier, the premier of Canada, took a prominent part in the Jubilee ceremonies, and received the honour of knighthood and admission into the Imperial Privy Council.

The South African War.—The growing spirit of unity throughout the Empire was strengthened by the war with the Boers of South Africa, 1899-1902. Canada, as well as Australia, New Zealand and other colonies, sent unasked aid to the mother country in her struggle to secure justice for British subjects in the Transvaal. More than eight thousand Canadian soldiers took part in the war, and many gave their lives for the Empire at PAARDEBURG, at HART'S RIVER, and on many another hard-fought battlefield.

The death of Queen Victoria in 1901 during the progress of the war, and the coronation of her son, King Edward VII., in 1902, shortly after its conclusion, gave further occasion for the display of the deep devotion and loyalty which the Canadian people feel towards the Crown and what it represents.

Conclusion.—It remains to be seen whether or not this Imperial spirit, so manifest in recent years, will lead to closer union. Many hope to see the establishment of some Great Council, representing all parts of the Empire, and deciding questions of Imperial importance, such as internal trade, defence, and foreign affairs.

Some think the difficulties of such a plan too great to be overcome, and are content with our present condition. Others look to independence as our political future. But whatever the future of Canada may be, present duty is clear. Those who are studying her history in school to-day will be moulding her destiny to-morrow. Let them so fit themselves for the task, that in their hands her glorious record may receive no stain, and that she may be led in the path of that righteousness which alone exalteth a nation.

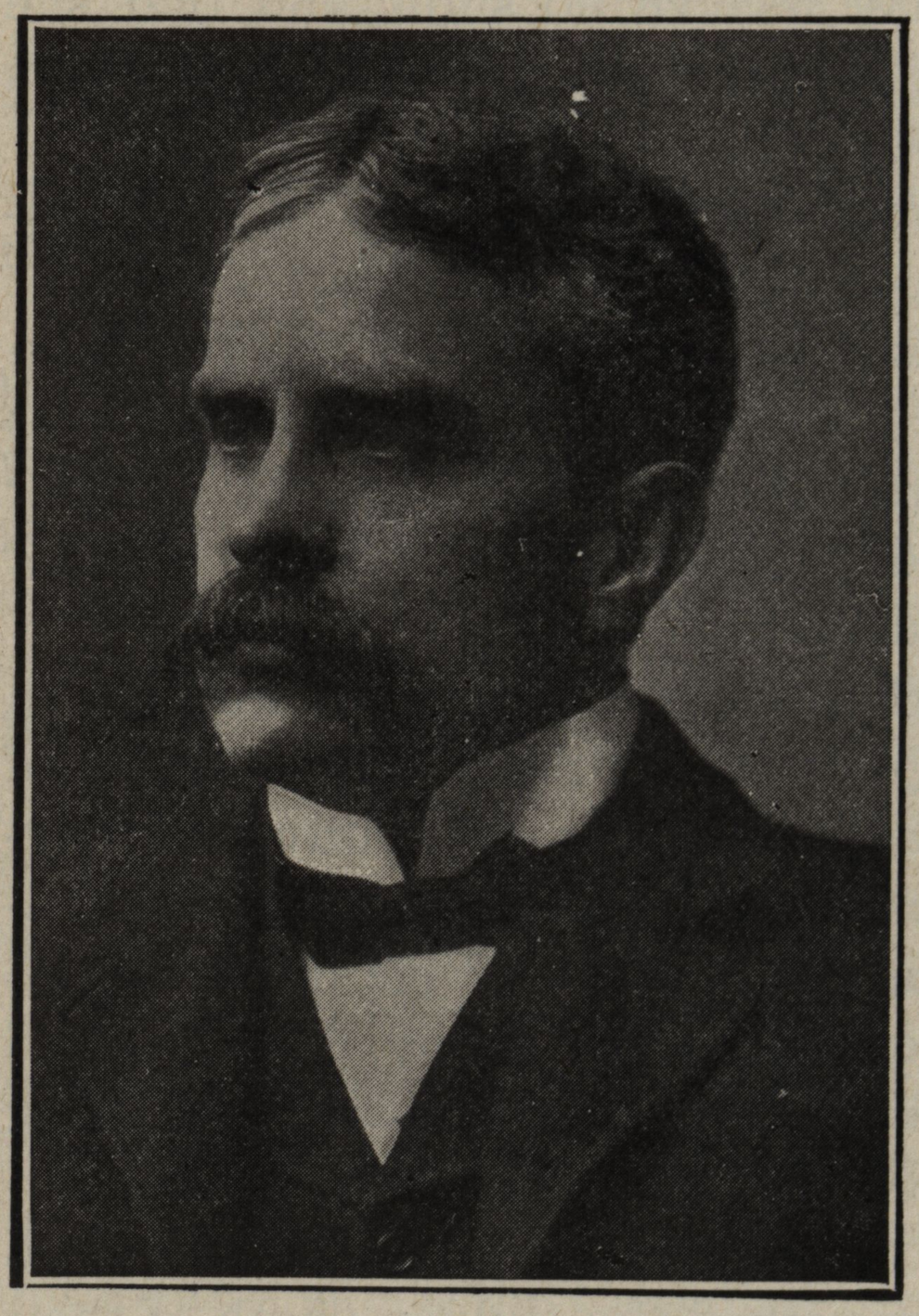
Record of Recent Events, 1905–1911.—By 1905 the population of the prairie territories reached half a million. From them were created by a Federal Act the two provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. The former was to be represented in the Dominion Parliament by four senators and seven commoners, and the latter by four senators and ten commoners.

The three-hundredth anniversary of the founding, in 1608, of the city of Quebec and the French colony of Canada was celebrated with great ceremony and magnificence. English and French joined with equal heartiness in thus honouring the memory of the noble Champlain, the "Father of Canada." Many distinguished visitors from abroad were in attendance, the King being represented by his son George, Prince of Wales.

In 1910 Canadians, in common with the people of all parts of the Empire, mourned the sudden death of their beloved King Edward VII., and loyally acclaimed his successor, GEORGE V., who was personally well known to them from his former visits. The coronation of the new King was performed at Westminster Abbey in June, 1911. In the accompanying ceremonies the representatives of Canada and the other overseas Dominions played a prominent part. Later in the

year George V., accompanied by Queen Mary, visited India, and, amid scenes of great splendour, was proclaimed Emperor at Delhi, the new capital.

In the same year Canada recognized more fully her responsibility in the defence of the Empire by the passage of the Naval Act. This provided for the establishment of a small navy, under Canadian control but subject to a call from the Imperial Government for service in time of war.



THE RIGHT HON. R. L. BORDEN.

The Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, which had been maintained in power by three general elections since 1896, drew up in 1911 a treaty with the United States providing for free trade in the natural products of the two countries. When an appeal was made to the people, however, to ratify this, the opposition to the plan was so strong that the Government was defeated by a large majority. Sir Wilfrid Laurier accordingly resigned, and Mr. R. L. Borden, the leader of the Conservatives, formed a ministry. The most important measure proposed by the new government to the new

parliament, and passed, was one dealing with provincial boundaries. The territory of Manitoba was extended northward to the sixtieth parallel and north-eastward to Hudson Bay. The remaining part of Keewatin lying east of Manitoba was united to Ontario, while the whole of the great district of Ungava was given to the province of Quebec.

Earl Grey completed his term as Governor-General in 1911. As his successor, the British Government chose HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS, THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT, the uncle of the King. This appointment of so prominent a member of the Royal Family indicates the growing importance attached by the Imperial authorities to the Dominion as one of the sister nations of the Empire.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER XLV

1. **Progress of Canada,**
   in area, population, trade, revenue, railway mileage, etc.
2. **Growth of the Imperial spirit.**
   a. Colonial conferences.
   b. Arrangement of preferential tariff on British goods.
   c. The Victorian Jubilee.
   d. Colonial share in South African War.
3. **Conclusion.**
   a. The future prospect.
   b. Our present duty.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What great railways have been constructed in Canada since 1867?
2. In what part of Canada is the population increasing the most rapidly? Why?

3. How did the policy of Great Britain towards her colonies during the latter part of the nineteenth century differ from that followed by her during the earlier part?
4. What have been the results of that change of policy?
5. Why did Canada send aid to the mother country in the South African war?
6. In what ways have the colonies drawn closer to the mother country during recent years?
7. Write out a list of ten of the most important events in the history of Canada since 1867.
8. Name ten eminent Canadians of the same period.
9. How are the following historical names commemorated in Canadian geography:—Jacques Cartier, Champlain, Laval, Richelieu, Frontenac, Montcalm, Wolfe, Amherst, Carleton (Dorchester), Simcoe, Brant, Brock, Sir Alexander Mackenzie, Selkirk, Dalhousie, Elgin?
10. In what way did each of the above-mentioned men influence the history of Canada?

IMPORTANT DATES OF CANADIAN HISTORY

THE PERIOD OF FRENCH RULE

Part I. Discovery and Exploration, 1492–1603

1492 America discovered by Columbus.
1497 Cabot discovers the mainland of North America.
1534 Cartier explores shores of Gulf of St. Lawrence.
1535 Cartier explores the River St. Lawrence.

Part II. The Rule of the Fur Companies, 1603–1663

1605 De Monts founds Port Royal.
1608 Champlain founds Quebec.
1613 Argall captures Port Royal.
1627 The Company of the Hundred Associates formed.
1629 Kirk captures Quebec.
1632 The Treaty of St. Germain.
1635 The death of Champlain.
1642 Maisonneuve founds Montreal.
1649 The destruction of the Huron Missions.
1660 Dollard saves Canada from the Iroquois.
1663 The establishment of Royal Government.

Part III. Growth under Royal Government, 1663–1755

1666 The punishment of the Mohawks.
1673 The discovery of the Mississippi by Marquette and Joliet.
1682 La Salle explores the Mississippi to its mouth.
1689 The Massacre of Lachine.
1690 Phips attacks Quebec.
1697 The Treaty of Ryswick.
1713 The Treaty of Utrecht.
1745 Louisburg captured.
1748 The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1749 Halifax founded.

Part IV. The Struggle of French and English for Supremacy, 1755–1760

1755 Braddock's defeat.
The expulsion of the Acadians.
1758 The British capture Louisburg.
1759 The fall of Quebec.
1760 The surrender of Montreal and of Canada.

THE PERIOD OF BRITISH RULE

Part V. The Laying of New Foundations, 1760–1815

1763 The Peace of Paris.
1774 The Quebec Act.
1775 The invasion of Canada by the Americans.
1783 The Treaty of Versailles.
The Loyalists settle in Canada.
1791 The Constitutional Act.
1812–14 The War with the United States.

Part VI. The Struggle for Self-Government, 1815–1841

1837 Rebellion in Upper and Lower Canada.
1838 Lord Durham's Mission.
1841 The Union of Upper and Lower Canada.

Part VII. Steps towards Confederation, 1841–1867

1842 The Ashburton Treaty.
1846 The Oregon Treaty.
1847–48 Responsible Government completely established in British North America.
1849 The Rebellion Losses Act.
Parliament houses burned at Montreal.
1853 The Grand Trunk Railway opened between Montreal and Portland.
1854 The Reciprocity Treaty with United States.
The Clergy Reserves Act.
The Seigneurial Tenure Act.
1864 Beginning of the Confederation movement.
1867 The British North America Act.
Formation of the Dominion.

Part VIII. National Development, 1867

1869 The North-West acquired.
The Red River Rebellion.
1870 Manitoba made a province of the Dominion.
1871 British Columbia joins the Dominion.
The Treaty of Washington.
1873 Prince Edward Island joins the Dominion.
The Mackenzie ministry formed.
1876 The Intercolonial Railway completed.
1878 Sir John A. Macdonald restored to power.
1881 The Canadian Pacific Railway Company is granted charter to complete the C.P.R.
1885 Riel raises rebellion on the Saskatchewan.
The Canadian Pacific Railway completed.
1891 Death of Sir John A. Macdonald.
1894 Colonial Conference at Ottawa.
1896 Liberal ministry formed by Wilfrid Laurier.
1897 Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee.
1899–02 The Boer War.
1901 Death of Queen Victoria.
Prince of Wales succeeded to the throne as King Edward VII.
1908 Tercentenary celebration of the founding of Quebec.
1910 Establishment of a Canadian Navy.
Death of King Edward VII.
Duke of York (Prince of Wales) becomes King George V.
1911 His Royal Highness, the Duke of Connaught, appointed Governor-General of Canada.
Conservative ministry formed by R. L. Borden.

A LIST OF REFERENCE BOOKS FOR THE FURTHER STUDY OF CANADIAN HISTORY

General Histories.

Kingsford.—*The History of Canada (to 1841).* 10 vols.
McMullen.—*The History of Canada.* 2 vols.
Bourinot.—*The Story of Canada.*
Garneau.—*Histoire du Canada (to 1841).* (Translated by Bell.)
Roberts.—*A History of Canada.*

Books on the French Period.

The works of Francis Parkman :

The Pioneers of France in the New World.
The Jesuits in North America.
The Old Régime in Canada.
Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.
LaSalle and the Discovery of the Great West.
A Half Century of Conflict. 2 vols.
Montcalm and Wolfe. 2 vols.

Winsor.—*From Cartier to Frontenac.*
Fiske.—*New France and New England.*
Machar and Marquis.—*Stories of New France.*
Bradley.—*The Fight with France for North America.*
Hannay.—*The History of Acadia.*
Doughty and Parmelee.—*The Siege of Quebec and the Battle of the Plains.* 6 vols.

Books on the British Period.

Bourinot.—*Canada under British Rule.*
Bourinot.—*Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada.*
Christie.—*The History of Lower Canada (1791–1841).* 6 vols.
Lucas.—*The War of 1812.*
Bryce.—*The Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company.*
Dent.—*The Story of the Upper Canada Rebellion.* 2 vols.
Dent.—*The Last Forty Years (1841–1881).* 2 vols.
Boulton.—*Reminiscences of the North-West Rebellions.*
Stewart.—*Canada under the Administration of Earl Dufferin.*
Mrs. Moodie.—*Roughing it in the Bush.*
Sellar.—*The History of the County of Huntingdon.*

The two last books contain excellent accounts of pioneer life in Upper and Lower Canada.

INDEX AND AID TO PRONUNCIATION

The explanation of pronunciation has been made as simple as possible, and in some cases, as of French names, is only approximately accurate. For pupils unfamiliar with French sounds the voice of the teacher should be the best aid.

The sound of *a* as in "fate" is represented by *ay*; of *a* as in "all" by *aw*; of *i* as in "pine" by *ai*; of *i* as in "machine" by *ee*; of *u* as in "rule" by *oo*. The letter *g* always denotes its own hard sound. The French nasal *n* is indicated by *n*^{g}.

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HISTORY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

(SUPPLEMENT)

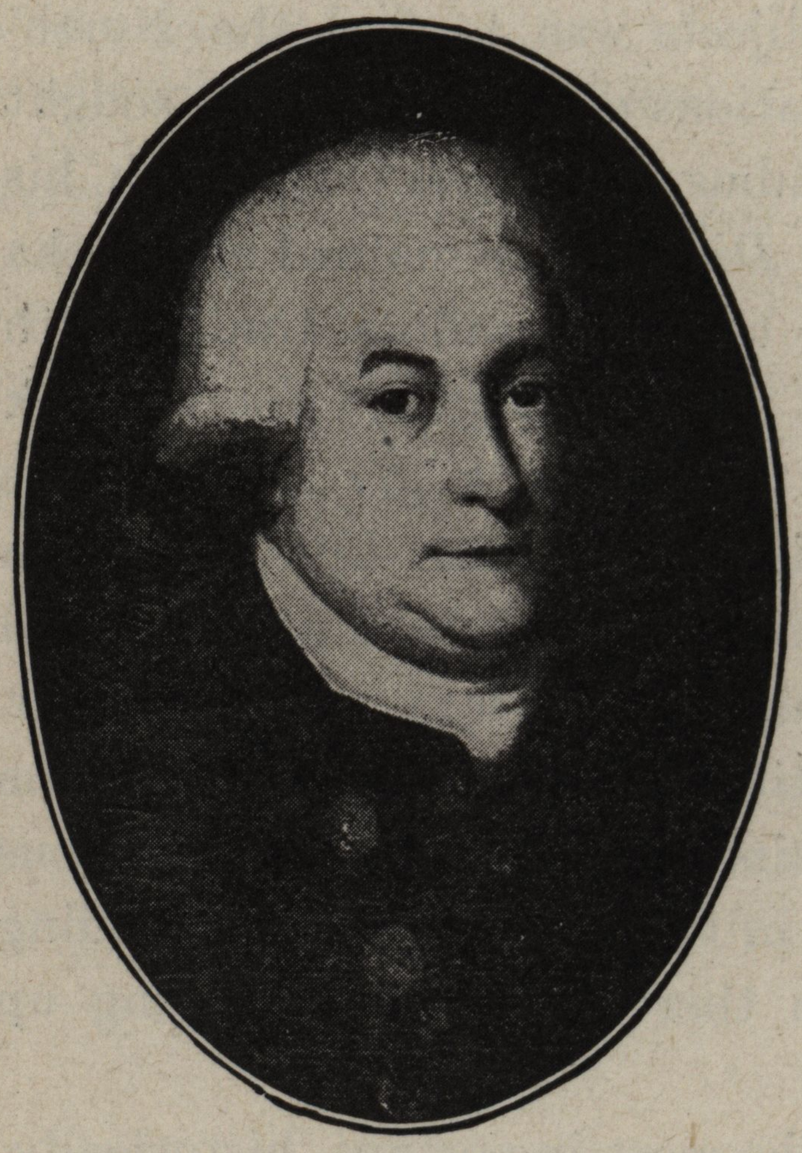
THE history of British Columbia really begins with the arrival of the great explorer, Captain James Cook. In March, 1778, on his third and last voyage, he reached Nootka Sound. One of his objects was to find the North-West Passage, for which the nations of the world had sought in vain since the days of Columbus. Captain Cook, with his vessels, the *Resolution* and the *Discovery*, remained at Nootka about a month. During that time the sailors traded with the Indians for skins and furs. From Nootka, Captain Cook sailed northward, but, being driven back by the ice, he returned to the Sandwich Islands; he was killed there in 1779. As the vessels were returning to England they called at Canton, where the great value of these furs was discovered.

The news of the great quantities of furs—especially of the sea-otter—which could be obtained here, and of the enormous prices which they commanded in China, caused many trading vessels to resort to our shores therefor, and thus sprang up the maritime fur-trade.

Amongst these fur-traders the most important, historically, was Lieutenant John Meares. He was one of the first to enter the trade. In 1788, while engaged in it, he built at Nootka the *North West America*. This was the first vessel constructed in this country. In 1789 he sent ships to carry on the trade on a larger scale and to establish a fort at Nootka. At that time Spain claimed this coast, and was

extremely jealous of any attempt by other nations to make a settlement or engage in trade with the natives anywhere on the Pacific coast of America. In pursuance of this policy Don Estevan Martinez was sent from Mexico, early in 1789, in command of an expedition to Nootka. This Spanish officer dispossessed Meares of the land formerly occupied by him there and seized his vessels for illegal trading in Spanish territory. Some of the officers and crews were sent as prisoners to Mexico.

Being a British subject, and his vessels British vessels, Meares applied to King George III. for redress. In reply to the British demand for satisfaction for this high-handed conduct, Spain claimed the territory and refused to make reparation. Both nations made preparations for war; but, ultimately, the dispute was settled by the Nootka Sound Convention, 1790, whereby Spain agreed to restore possession of the land seized, to pay damages for the loss sustained by Meares in the seizure of his vessels, and also agreed that thereafter the navigation, commerce, and fisheries of the Pacific coast of America should, under certain restrictions, be open to the British.



CAPTAIN GEORGE VANCOUVER.

For the purpose of obtaining re-possession of the lands seized by the Spaniards, CAPTAIN GEORGE VANCOUVER was sent out. He sailed from England in April, 1791, in command of the *Discovery* and the *Chatham*. Arriving in April,

1792, he spent over two years in exploring our coast line. This work he carried out with great care and exactness, and "with a zeal beyond all praise." In its progress he circumnavigated Vancouver Island, and, being the first to establish its insularity, called it the island of Quadra and Vancouver, after Don Francisco Bodega y Quadra, the Spanish representative, and himself. But he was unable to obtain repossession of the land at Nootka owing to a dispute with Señor Quadra as to the extent of the territory in question. Accordingly, having completed his survey of the coast and

QUADRA AND VANCOUVER'S SHIPS.—NOOTKA SOUND.

not being able to reach an understanding about the land, he left Nootka in October, 1794. The trouble was finally settled by the Madrid Convention, 1794, and in March, 1796, commissioners representing the two nations met at Nootka and the formal acts of re-possession took place.

In 1670 King Charles II. granted to "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay," commonly called the Hudson's Bay Company, a charter entitling them to the trade of all the country surrounding Hudson Bay. For over a hundred years that company, confining its operations to the vicinity of the bay, carried on its trade without interruption from rival traders. But in

the winter of 1783–4, the North-West Company of Montreal was established, and soon a bitter rivalry sprang up between it and the older company. In 1743 La Verendrye had reached the Rocky Mountains, but the country between them and the western sea was unknown. The North-West Company determined to reach out and obtain its trade. For this purpose ALEXANDER MACKENZIE, one of the partners in the North-West Company, who had in 1789 traced the Mackenzie River to its mouth, was sent out in 1792 from Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabasca. Ascending the Peace River, he spent the winter at Fort Fork, a trading-post which he built on its bank, and in May, 1793, he set his face again westward. He traced the Peace River to the source of its southerly branch, now known as the Parsnip, crossed a divide of 814 paces, and made his way to a river flowing westward. This he called the "Great River"; the Indian name he gives as Tacoutche Tesse. It was for many years thought to be the Columbia or Great River of the West; we now know it as the Fraser. After reaching a point near Alexandria he retraced his course to the Blackwater River, which he ascended, and reached Bentinck Arm in July, 1793. Two days later he wrote on the rocks at Cascade Inlet:—"ALEXANDER MACKENZIE FROM CANADA BY LAND THE TWENTY-SECOND DAY OF JULY ONE THOUSAND SEVEN HUNDRED AND NINETY-THREE." If he had reached this spot a month earlier he would have met Vancouver, who was then surveying there. Mackenzie's voyage gave to the world the first knowledge of the interior of British Columbia. In recognition of his services as an explorer the adventurous traveller received from King George III. the well-deserved honour of knighthood.

For twelve years nothing was done by the North-West Company to obtain the trade of the country beyond the Rockies, which this voyage had opened to it. During that

period it was engaged in a severe struggle with the X Y Company, a faction which had split off from it; but immediately after the death of Simon McTavish, in 1805, these two warring companies were re-united, and then the struggle with the Hudson's Bay Company was vigorously renewed.

In 1805, Simon Fraser, a partner in the North-West Company, was sent out to establish trading posts on its behalf west of the Rockies. He followed Alexander Mackenzie's course up the Peace River until he reached the Pack River, a small stream flowing out of McLeod Lake, and there, late in 1805, he built Fort McLeod, the first permanent abode of civilized man in British Columbia.

In the following year, Fraser continued in Mackenzie's track up the Parsnip and across to the Fraser, which he followed to the confluence of the Nechaco. This stream he ascended, and built in 1806 on Stuart Lake another post—the celebrated Fort St. James. Later in 1806 he built Fort Fraser on Fraser Lake, a short distance to the westward; and in 1807 he built Fort George at the mouth of the Nechaco.

The North-West Company determined to ascertain the possibilities of the mysterious river—the Fraser as we now call it. To this end instructions were sent to Fraser to explore the Great River to its mouth. He set out on this adventurous undertaking in May, 1808. As he made his way down the river, the Indians, learning his intention, repeatedly warned him of the dangerous canyons and awe-inspiring rapids, and pointed out the impossibility of navigating it in its freshet-swollen condition. Nevertheless the explorer persevered until, finding the river unnavigable, he abandoned his canoes, and the party made their way by Indian trails along the banks of the river to Yale. Obtaining canoes there, the remainder of the journey was made by water to the mouth of the North Arm of the Fraser. Being attacked by the natives at Musqueam, Fraser hurriedly commenced his

return journey, and the whole company, after many trials and difficulties, reached Fort George in safety early in August. As a reward for this service, Fraser was promoted in 1811 to the charge of the whole Red River department. He retired about 1821, and died in the township of Cornwall in 1862, aged eighty-six.

David Thompson, another partner in the North-West Company, in 1807, crossed the Rocky Mountains by way of the Howse Pass and the Blaeberry Creek, and discovered the main stream of the Columbia. On that river, not far from its source, he built, late in 1807, Fort Kootenai, the first trading post on the Columbia or any of its tributaries. Within the next four years he founded for the North-West Company, also, Fort Kullyspell, Salish, and Spokane on tributaries of the Columbia, but these were all within the present boundaries of the United States. His explorations in the valley of the Columbia were quite extensive. The record of his work, only now coming to light, entitles him to a place amongst the greatest explorers of this continent.

John Jacob Astor, a rich New York merchant, who had been for many years connected with the fur trade of the United States, organized in 1810 the Pacific Fur Company, with the object of monopolizing that trade on this coast. His plan included a central depot, Astoria, on the Columbia, and annual vessels from New York which should deliver at Astoria supplies of trading goods, and, loading with the collected furs, should sail for China, where the furs were to be sold and the products of the Orient obtained for the New York market. He offered an interest in the venture to the North-West Company, but they refused it. David Thompson was sent to forestall Astor in the possession of the Columbia mouth, but owing to difficulties on the journey he failed in the attempt. However, the North-westers struggled so successfully against the undertaking that in 1813 they succeeded

in purchasing it for a very small amount. While the contest lasted each of the companies built a trading post wherever a rival one existed. Amongst the places where this happened was Kamloops. The first trading post was located there by the Astorians in 1812; almost immediately afterwards the North-westers built an opposition establishment alongside.

After the purchase of the Pacific Fur Company's interests in 1813, the North-West Company had complete control of the fur trade here, except in so far as an occasional vessel might trade along the coast. The Hudson's Bay Company, with but one exception and that a merely temporary one, did not cross the Rocky Mountains until after 1821.

But the contest in the territory east of the Rockies between the two companies became more intense, until, in 1816, it culminated in the tragedy at Seven Oaks, when Governor Semple and twenty men of Lord Selkirk's colony at Red River were killed. This brought the condition of affairs in the fur trade to the attention of the British Government. After a lengthy negotiation the North-West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company were united in 1821, under the name of the Hudson's Bay Company. To these united interests the British Government granted a license of exclusive trade with the Indians in the unorganized territories of North America, including the country west of the Rockies. This license was, in 1838, renewed in the name of the Hudson's Bay Company for a further period of twenty-one years.

George Simpson, afterwards Sir George, became the Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company immediately after the union in 1821. He managed its affairs most successfully until his death in 1860. Besides the forts already mentioned, the company built in British Columbia, Fort Alexandria 1821, Fort Babine 1822, Fort Connolly 1826, Fort Langley 1827, Fort Simpson 1831, Fort McLoughlin 1833, Fort

Stickeen 1834, Fort Taku 1840, Fort Victoria 1843, Fort Hope 1847, Fort Yale 1848. The Hudson's Bay Company also had forts in the territory now forming part of the United States. Fort Vancouver, on the northern bank of the Columbia, was its headquarters for this coast, until the removal to Fort Victoria.

The company gradually entered into other lines of activity outside the fur trade, and determined to occupy the mouth of the Fraser with a trading post which should also carry on the work of farming and fishing. In 1824 a preliminary examination was made, though it was not until 1827 that the plan took actual shape, by the building of Fort Langley. The trading goods were brought out and the furs taken back to England by annual sailing vessels. The connection between the coast forts was maintained by small sailing vessels like the *Cadboro*, and later by the historic steamer *Beaver*, which arrived in 1836. Between the inland forts the means of communication was by boats and pack-horses—the brigade as it was called.

During all this time the question of the ownership of the country remained unsettled. It continued, as it had been since the time of the Nootka Sound Convention, open to settlement by the nations, but the property of none. By a treaty made in 1825, the portion which should belong to Russia was marked off. The southern boundary of Russian America, or Alaska as we now call it, was thereby fixed at 54° 40′ North latitude. Unfortunately, the division line was described in such a vague manner as to leave us the Alaska Boundary Dispute. After dragging on for many years and being the subject of much negotiation, this dispute was settled by a tribunal which sat in London in 1903. Subsequent to 1825, the claimants remaining were three, Great Britain, Spain, and the United States. In 1819 the northern limit of the Spanish possessions was placed at 42° North latitude,

and the rights of Spain beyond that point were transferred to the United States. Thus but two claimants to the Oregon Territory, as the country between 42° and 54° 40′ was called, remained—Great Britain and the United States.

In 1818, when the 49th parallel was made the boundary between the British and the American possessions east of the Rockies, it was agreed that the territory west of those mountains should be open to the subjects of both nations for ten years. In 1827 the arrangement of joint occupancy was continued, to be determined by one year's notice. Several attempts were made to arrange a division of the territory. Great Britain offered to accept as a boundary the 49th parallel to the Columbia River, and thence to the ocean, the centre line of that river. The United States offered to accept as a boundary line that parallel to the ocean. Various alterations in the details of these offers were made from time to time without a settlement of the dispute being reached. In 1844 the Democratic party in the United States claimed the whole territory, and raised the cry of "Fifty-four forty, or fight." By the treaty of Washington, 1846, the long-standing difficulty was adjusted, and the boundary line was drawn along the 49th parallel to the middle of the Gulf of Georgia, and thence through the middle of the channel that separates the continent from Vancouver Island and the middle of the Strait of Fuca to the ocean.

As the Oregon dispute waxed warmer, the Hudson's Bay Company concluded that Fort Vancouver, their headquarters, would be within American possessions. It was, therefore, determined to select a new site for their principal fort on the Pacific. In 1843 they built on the southern end of Vancouver Island a fort, known successively as Fort Camosun, Fort Albert, and Fort Victoria. This was one of their strongest forts, and was constructed under the direction of Chief Factor James Douglas, afterwards Sir James Douglas. It was an

enclosure of about a hundred yards square, surrounded by a palisade of cedar posts, twenty feet high, and having at opposite corners bastions mounting six cannon each. This was the beginning of the beautiful city of Victoria, the Capital of British Columbia.

In 1849 the Home authorities concluded to form a colony on Vancouver Island. For this purpose it was ceded to the Hudson's Bay Company, which undertook to settle a colony of British subjects thereon within five years, to dispose of the land at a reasonable price, and after deducting ten per cent. for management, to apply the remainder of the money in improving the island. If no settlement were made within that five years the grant was to be forfeited, and at the expiration of the company's license to trade with the Indians, which would terminate in 1859, the island could be taken back, on paying whatever money the company should have expended.

Richard Blanshard was sent out from England as the first Governor of the colony. He arrived in Victoria in March, 1850. There were no colonists to be governed. The servants of the company were the only persons on the island. Later a few real colonists arrived. The Governor's position was so anomalous that in November, 1850, he resigned, though he did not actually leave the colony until September, 1851. Before leaving he appointed a Council of three persons to manage its affairs until his successor should be chosen. This Provisional Council was very short-lived, for in November, 1851, James Douglas, the head of the Hudson's Bay Company on this coast, took office as Governor of Vancouver Island.

The population of the colony increased, but very slowly. The discovery of coal at Fort Rupert, and later at Nanaimo, caused the company to bring out a few coal miners. In 1853 there were only 450 white inhabitants. Nevertheless it was determined to establish representative government in the

colony. The first House consisted of seven members representing Victoria, Esquimalt, Victoria and Esquimalt Districts, Sooke, and Nanaimo. The first meeting took place in August, 1856. Dr. J. S. Helmcken, who is still living, was elected Speaker.

In the spring of 1858 the news of the discovery of gold on the mainland caused a great inrush of miners. Victoria, as the nearest seaport, sprang suddenly into importance, for there the incoming vessels landed the greater part of these adventurers. About 30,000 people came in this "rush." Their advent marked the end of the Hudson's Bay Company's authority on the mainland, which was created a separate colony—British Columbia. The license of exclusive trade with the Indians was cancelled in November, 1858, and James Douglas became Governor of British Columbia as well as of Vancouver Island. On taking office he severed his connection with the company. In 1859 the British Government took back Vancouver Island from the Hudson's Bay Company, though it was not formally re-granted until 1867.

The early miners were in many instances disappointed owing to the bars being submerged by the freshet. But some persevered. They ascended the Fraser and the Thompson rivers and reaped a rich reward. The diggings on the bars of these rivers were quite shallow, gold being sometimes found within a few inches of the surface. The canyons above Yale constituted a serious obstacle. To avoid them a route by way of Harrison, Lillooet, Anderson, and Seton lakes was opened.

The gold found near Lillooet was quite coarse, while that found below Yale was in scales and minute particles. The miners therefore concluded that further up the river richer mining ground would be found. This caused the advance into the interior, and the discovery of gold in 1859 on the

Quesnelle and Horsefly rivers. In the next year Harvey, Keithley, Cunningham, and the other creeks which flow into Cariboo Lake were ascertained to be gold-bearing. Late in 1860 Antler Creek was discovered. As a result many miners made their way into the Cariboo district in 1861, and Williams Creek became known as the richest diggings in the world. The wondrous riches of the Cariboo creeks—especially Williams, Lowhee, Antler, and Lightning—drew a great influx of miners from all parts of the world during 1862 and subsequent years.

The mines of Cariboo lay in the interior, four hundred miles distant from Yale, the head of navigation. To give easy access to them, the Cariboo road, one of the most wonderful works ever undertaken in this province, was built during 1862-3-4 at a cost of about $750,000.

To aid in maintaining order and in surveying and opening up the colony, Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, the novelist, who was then (1858) Secretary of State for the Colonies, sent out a detachment of the Royal Engineers under Colonel R. C. Moody. Amongst other duties, Colonel Moody was directed to select the site of the Capital of British Columbia. He chose the spot on which the city of New Westminster now stands. It remained the Capital until 1868. The Royal Engineers were disbanded in 1863. All the officers returned to England, but the greater number of the men cast in their lot with the colony.

A dispute, known as the San Juan Boundary Dispute, arose in 1859. The British claimed that the channel referred to in the Treaty of Washington was the Rosario Strait; the Americans claimed it was the Haro Strait. Between these two lay the San Juan archipelago. An American force was landed on San Juan in 1859. Immediately British war vessels were also sent to the island, and matters assumed a threatening attitude. Ultimately a joint occupation was

arranged, and a British force equal to the American was stationed on San Juan. The question, after lying dormant for some years, was referred to the Emperor of Germany. In 1872 it was decided in favour of the United States, and the British force was withdrawn.

1 2 3

SKETCH MAP OF HARO ARCHIPELAGO, SHOWING THE THREE CHANNELS.

1. Line claimed by the United States. 2. Proposed middle channel. 3. Line claimed by Great Britain.

On Vancouver Island the Legislative Assembly, originally consisting of seven members, was in 1860 increased to ten,

and in 1863 to fifteen. But in British Columbia Governor Douglas himself was the law-maker. In consequence of repeated requests, he was, in 1863, instructed to form a Legislative Council for British Columbia. This body was but partially representative. It was composed of fifteen members, being ten officials and five members elected by the people.

In 1863, just before the retirement of Governor Douglas, the Home authorities, yielding to the solicitation of the mainland, concluded to appoint separate governors for the two colonies. Governor Douglas's term expired in 1864. He was succeeded by Arthur Kennedy as Governor of Vancouver Island, and by Frederick Seymour as Governor of British Columbia.

This complete separation was of short duration. It had hardly come into effect before an agitation commenced on Vancouver Island for a union of the colonies. The mainland strongly opposed this movement, but it found favour with the Colonial Office, and the two colonies were united in 1866. Though the union was much against the wishes of British Columbia, it was plainly in the best interests of the Province on the Pacific. Governor Seymour became the Governor of the united colonies, thereafter known as the Colony of British Columbia. Governor Kennedy returned to England and was later the Governor of Sierra Leone, Hong Kong, and Queensland. Upon the union the Legislative Assembly of Vancouver Island ceased to exist, and the Legislative Council was increased to twenty-two members, being thirteen appointed and nine elected members, so as to give representation to the island therein.

Almost immediately the question of the location of the Capital arose. In the session of 1867, the very first after the union, by a vote of 13 to 8 the Legislative Council recommended that Victoria be selected. The Governor, however,

took no action, and in the following session, which, like that of 1867 was held in New Westminster, the Legislative Council by a vote of 14 to 5 again voted in favour of Victoria. Accordingly, by a Proclamation dated 25th May, 1868, the Governor named Victoria as the Capital of British Columbia.

In 1867 union with the new Dominion of Canada, then just formed and then including only Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, began to be discussed. Nothing in the nature of a practical step could be taken, however, owing to the unorganized territory east of the Rockies being under the control of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1869 this barrier was removed, and the road lay open to Confederation. In the same year Governor Seymour died. His successor, Richard Musgrave, afterwards Sir Richard, was specially instructed to bring about the union of British Columbia with the Dominion.

In 1870 the Legislative Council debated the question at great length, and a proposed basis of union was drawn up. Delegates were sent from British Columbia to arrange for the admission of the Colony on these terms. They succeeded in arranging the Terms of Union, which differed somewhat from those approved by the Legislative Council. To give the people a chance to decide the question of union the constitution of the Legislative Council was again altered. It was to consist of nine elected and six appointed members—thus for the first time giving to the people the majority of members in this Council. In January, 1871, the Legislative Council, thus composed, unanimously accepted the Terms of Union; the Parliament of Canada accepted them in the following April; and on the 20th July, 1871, British Columbia ceased to be a colony and became one of the Provinces of the Dominion of Canada.

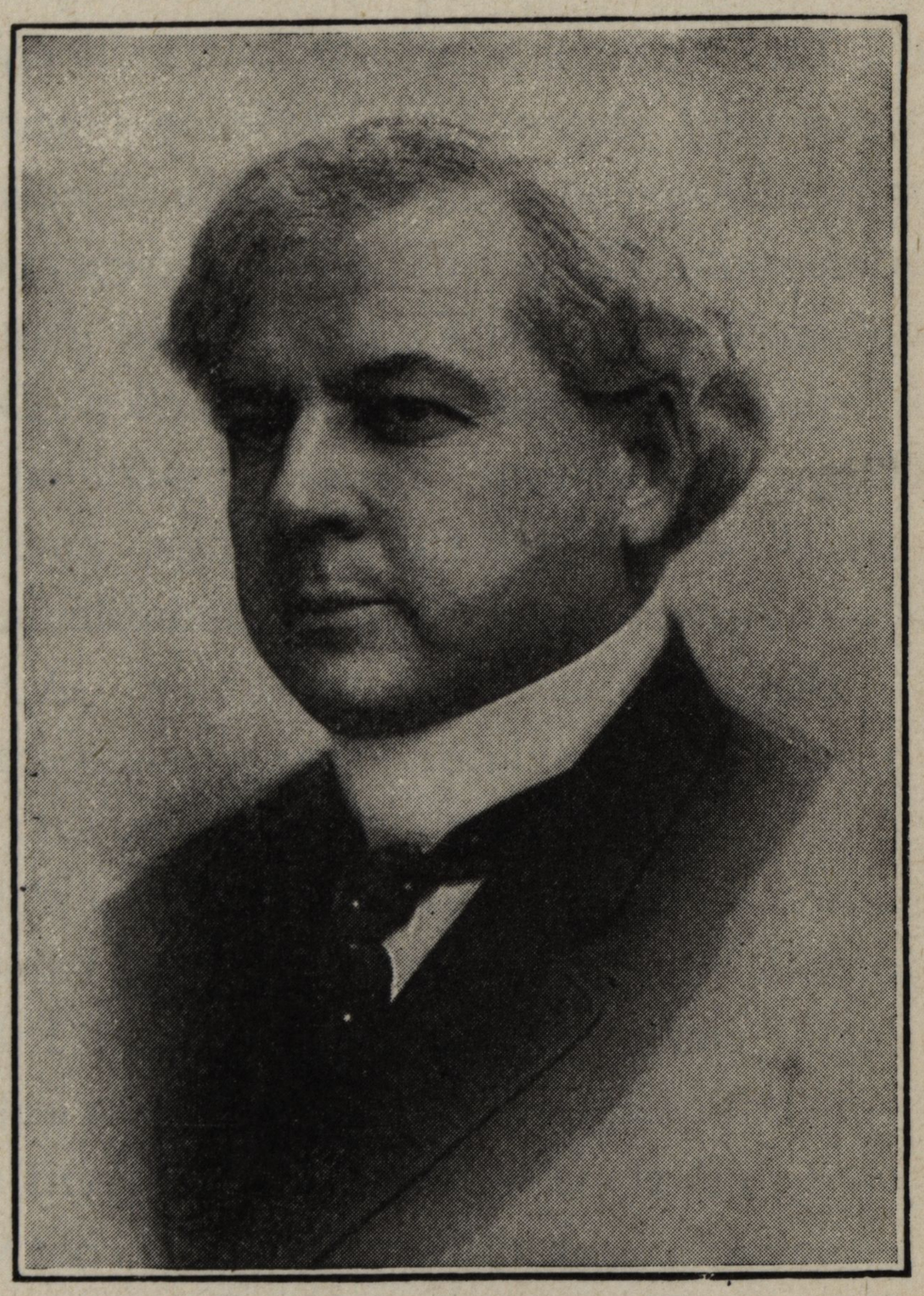
The principal Terms of Union were that Canada should assume the debts of British Columbia, and pay interest on

the difference between that debt and the debts of the Maritime Provinces, which were agreed to be $27.77 per head of the population; that Canada should pay annual subsidies of $35,000, and eighty cents per head of the population until it reached 400,000; that Canada should assume and pay the salaries of the Lieutenant-Governor and the Judges, and support the customs, inland revenue, postal, fisheries, militia, and other similar services; that British Columbia should be entitled to three representatives in the Senate and six in the House of Commons; that Canada should guarantee for ten years the interest on $100,000 towards the cost of a graving dock at Esquimalt; that Canada should assume the management of Indian affairs in the Province, and should pursue a liberal policy therein; and that Canada should agree to the introduction of representative government in the Province. But beyond all these and as the chief incentive to the union, Canada undertook to commence within two years from the union and to complete within ten years from the same date a line of railway connecting the seaboard of British Columbia with the existing railway system of Canada.

On the entry into the union, the Honourable Joseph W. Trutch was appointed Lieutenant-Governor. Governor Musgrave returned to England, and was almost immediately appointed Governor of Natal; later he held office as Governor of South Australia, Jamaica, and Queensland.

In 1871 the Legislative Council was abolished and representative government introduced. The first Legislative Assembly, consisting of twenty-five members, was elected in the autumn of 1871, and met in February, 1872. Mr. J. F. McCreight, afterwards one of the Judges of the Supreme Court, was the first Premier. From time to time the membership of the Legislative Assembly has been increased as the progress of the province demanded. The number of members at present (1912) is forty-two.

The surveys for the location of the Canadian Pacific Railway were commenced without delay; but it soon became evident that the undertaking was vastly more difficult than had been supposed. The two years within which the actual work of construction should have been commenced passed by, but the surveys were not complete enough to enable the engineers to select the line of the railway. Indeed it may be truthfully said that the surveys only served to show even more clearly the immense difficulties of the work. But the people of British Columbia became impatient. They cried out for the commencement of construction. A feeling of dissatisfaction over the failure to commence work in the two years sprang up. Canada was blamed for the delay. The Province determined to lay its grievance before the Queen. Lord Carnarvon, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, endeavoured to arrange the difficulty, and in November, 1874, after having heard both sides of the controversy, he gave his decision. This is known as the Carnarvon Terms. These Terms ordered that a railway should be built from Esquimalt to Nanaimo; that the surveys on the mainland should be



HON. RICHARD McBRIDE, PREMIER OF BRITISH COLUMBIA.

energetically carried on; that a waggon road and telegraph line should be at once constructed on the mainland; that at least two million dollars a year should be expended on railway construction as soon as the surveys were far enough advanced to warrant work being undertaken; and that the railway should be completed to Lake Superior by December, 1890.

The surveys went on, but still construction was not commenced. Again the Province began to complain of broken promises; the commencement of actual construction was still delayed. The people became greatly dissatisfied, and a feeling of enmity against Canada gained ground. Secession from the Union was openly threatened. Lord Dufferin, then the Governor-General, made a visit to the Province in 1876 to allay these bitter feelings, and to stamp out with his persuasive eloquence the smouldering fire of secession.

Still the surveys went on. A number of alternative routes were examined and suggested: one by way of the Yellowhead Pass to Bute Inlet, and thence across Seymour Narrows to Esquimalt; others to Port Simpson, and by way of the Fraser Valley to Burrard Inlet. Finally, in 1878, the latter route was selected, and in 1880 the contract for the construction of the main line was entered into with a syndicate, but the Dominion Government agreed to build the very expensive and difficult portion between Yale and Savona's Ferry. The syndicate undertook to complete the railway within ten years; however, they set to work so energetically that it was completed to Port Moody on Burrard Inlet in 1886. Very soon afterwards, by an arrangement with the Provincial Government, the railway was extended to Coal Harbour, and thereby the City of Vancouver, perhaps the most notable example of great and continuous growth in Canada, came into existence.

The question of a railway on Vancouver Island still remained to be settled. Though its construction was part of

the Carnarvon Terms, 1874, yet after the Senate of Canada threw out the bill which the Government introduced in 1875 to authorize its being built, no further steps had been taken to that end. For years the Island railway was discussed between the Provincial and the Dominion Governments. In 1883 this and a number of other vexed and long-standing questions were arranged by the Settlement Act. The Dominion agreed to contribute $750,000 towards the cost of a railway from Esquimalt to Nanaimo; to re-pay the Province the money expended on the Graving Dock; and to take over, complete, and operate that dock as a Dominion work. With the arrangement of these matters all disputed questions were ended, and the Province entered on a period of extensive development, which, with the exception of a temporary set-back from 1891 to 1898, has continued to the present day.

IMPORTANT DATES IN THE HISTORY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

1670 Incorporation of Hudson's Bay Company.
1778 Captain Cook reaches Nootka.
1784–5 Formation of North-West Company.
1785 Arrival of first fur-trader, James Hanna.
1789 Meares' vessels seized by the Spaniards.
1790 Nootka Sound convention.
1792 Vancouver circumnavigates Vancouver Island.
1793 Sir Alexander Mackenzie's overland voyage.
1794 Final settlement of Nootka difficulty.
1795 Spain abandons Nootka.
1805 Simon Fraser arrives and founds Fort McLeod.
1806 Forts St. James and Fraser built.
1807 David Thompson reaches the Columbia overland.
Fort George built.
1808 Fraser explores the Fraser River to its mouth.
1811 Astoria founded.
1812 Fort Kamloops founded.
1813 North-West Company absorbs Pacific Fur Co.
1818 First Treaty of Joint Occupation between Great Britain and United States.
1825 Boundary of Russian America settled.
1827 Treaty extending the joint occupation.
Fort Langley founded.
1842 James Douglas selects site of Fort Victoria.
1843 Building of Fort Victoria.
1846 Treaty of Washington settles Southern Boundary.
1849 Vancouver Island becomes a colony.
1850 Governor Blanshard arrives.
1851 Governor Blanshard departs.
James Douglas becomes Governor of Vancouver Island.
1852 Nanaimo founded.

1856 First legislature on Vancouver Island.
1858 Great gold excitement.
British Columbia (mainland) a colony.
James Douglas appointed Governor of British Columbia.
1859 New Westminster founded as capital of British Columbia.
San Juan difficulty.
1860–1 Cariboo mines discovered.
1862 Cariboo wagon road begun.
1864 Governor Douglas retires and is knighted.
First session Legislative Council of British Columbia.
Trouble with Chilcotin Indians.
1866 Union of Vancouver Island and British Columbia.
1868 Removal of Capital to Victoria.
1871 British Columbia enters Confederation.
1873 Discovery of gold in Cassiar.
1876 Lord Dufferin visits British Columbia.
1878 Secession resolution passed by Local Legislature.
1883 Gold discoveries in Kootenai.
1885 First through train over the C. P. R.
1886 Vancouver City destroyed by fire (June 13th).
Esquimalt dry-dock completed.
First through train over Island Railway, August 13th.
1888 Death of John A. Cameron, "Cariboo Cameron."
1895 The Kootenai quartz mining excitement begins.
1898 Atlin gold mines discovered.
1903 Hon. Richard McBride becomes Premier.

PREMIERS OF THE PROVINCE OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Hon. J. F. McCreight	1871–1872
" Amos DeCosmos	1872–1874
" George A. Walkem	1874–1876
" A. C. Elliott	1876–1878
" George A. Walkem	1878–1882
" Robert Beaven	1882–1883
" Wm. Smithe	1883–1887
" A. E. B. Davie	1887–1889
" John Robson	1889–1892
" Theodore Davie	1892–1895
" J. H. Turner	1895–1898
" C. A. Semlin	1898–1900
" Joseph Martin	1st March, 1900, to June, 1900
" James Dunsmuir	June, 1900, to November, 1902
" E. G. Prior	November, 1902, to June, 1903
" Richard McBride	June, 1903, to——

GOVERNORS OF VANCOUVER ISLAND

Richard Blanshard	1849–1851
Sir James Douglas	1851–1864
Arthur E. Kennedy	1864–1866

GOVERNORS OF SEPARATE COLONY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Sir James Douglas	1858–1864
Frederick Seymour	1864–1866

GOVERNORS OF UNITED COLONY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Frederick Seymour	1866–1869
Anthony Musgrave	1869–1871

GOVERNORS OF THE PROVINCE OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Sir Joseph W. Trutch	1871–1876
Hon. Albert Nortin Richards	1876–1881
" Clement F. Cornwall	1881–1887
" Hugh Nelson	1887–1892
" Edgar Dewdney	1892–1897
" Thomas R. McInnes	1897–1900
Sir Henri Joly de Lotbiniere	1900–1906
Hon. James Dunsmuir	1906–1909
" Thomas W. Paterson	1909——